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William A. Brownell
SEE PAGE 123

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The Curriculum and the World Beyond Tomorrow

J. HARTT WALSH
Dean, School of Education
Butler University, Indianapolis, Indiana

"WHAT is happening in the world of today, we can do little about. But what happens twenty years from now we can direct! And the only way the world of tomorrow can be formed is through our homes and schools of today. There is no greater power in the world than education." "If you teachers do not do your work well, this republic will not outlast the span of one generation. You render some well-nigh unbelievable service to the country." "A load of books does not equal one good teacher."[1]

We are living, learning, and teaching in a dynamic, kaleidoscopic, exciting, vibrant, stimulating, challenging, and explosive age of acceleration, and we are currently seeing only snatches of the first scene of a great drama that is unfolding, and that will continue to unfold before us.

The Teacher a Catalytic Agent

In this age of constant and rapid change, the teacher is the catalytic agent in the educational process, the one who transmutes, translates, and transmits knowledge, understandings, and skills for his pupils, as he prepares them for *the world around them and ahead of them*. The teacher in the 1960's and beyond will need an abundance of vision, imagination, courage, daring, and creativeness, and he must stimulate, challenge, and inspire his students with these same qualities.

"Behind every advance . . . . is a germ of creation growing in the mind of some lone individual . . . . whose dreams waken him in the night while others lie contentedly asleep."[2]

In the world beyond tomorrow it is important and necessary that teachers search out and work on the cutting edge of the frontiers of knowledge. We cannot live or teach in the academic vacuum of our undergraduate preparation like educational Rip Van Winkles, unaware of the changes taking place around us.

We are faced, and will continue to be faced, with the phenomenon of a constantly and rapidly increasing body of knowledge, skills, and understandings resulting from techno-scientific as well as socio-politico-economic developments and advances; the consequence is and will be a demand for much more education and better training for a much larger percentage of the population—in all occupational areas and at all school levels.

1. Quotations from Gretchen Grimm, President Theodore Roosevelt, and a Chinese Proverb.
2. Dr. Crawford Greenwalt, President, E. I. du Pont de Nemours and Company.

Jet-Age Schools for the Jet Age

Vast changes will be made in all fields and at all levels of education; changes that may now seem startling and fantastic; changes that will leave an indelible imprint on all education in this and succeeding decades.

This is 1961. Education for the 1960's and 70's cannot be that of the 1890's and 1900's or even the 1940's and 50's. The curricula, the books, the courses of study, the purposes, and the procedures of our schools in this decade and beyond cannot and must not be the same as they were in previous decades. The jet age must have "jet-age education." Our schools can no longer be largely or partly the paradise of formalism, conservatism, and traditionalism. We definitely cannot afford the luxury of casual, decorative, and archaic learning in the upcoming decades.

Curricula and courses of study must be searchingly, objectively, and realistically studied and restudied. We must continually sift, sort, refine, delete, modify, and redirect courses and course content in our schools.

We cannot retreat in consternation behind such glittering generalities and hollow educational facades as "fundamentals," "solids," "tough," "basic." What *may have been* "basic and fundamental" in the 1920's or 1950's may not be basic and fundamental today; in fact it may be completely false. (Until just a few years ago we believed and taught that the atom could not be divided!) We must be objectively and constructively critical in determing what the nature and direction of education should be in the coming ten years.

Teaching procedures and practices will, of necessity, be materially altered as the result of scientific, technological, and psychological discoveries and developments.

Today's Student, Tomorrow's Citizen

That little, cherubic second grader of today most likely will not vote for fourteen years, until the presidential election of 1976. He probably will not become an effective, productive, and influential citizen until about 1976, the bicentennial of our history.

It is the responsibility of the classroom teacher of 1961-62 to try to prepare the boys and girls of his generation for the world around them and ahead of them—five-ten-twenty years in the future. To do this we must elevate our educational sights and extend our academic horizons. We must work in the present while we build on the past and plan for the future.

All of this poses herculean challenges and problems for teachers. To prepare their pupils for the world beyond tomorrow they must have a broad general education to the end that the interrelationships of all knowledge, past, present, and future, can be brought vividly into focus and proper perspective for their students. Furthermore, all classroom teachers must have probed deeply into some area or areas of knowledge and their interrelationships. Finally and most importantly, *all* teachers must keep their general and special knowledge current and up to date through a continuous program of broad, general, and special reading.

Much of this reading should be tangential and in addition to the usual sources of information to which the classroom teacher would and should normally turn. Out of this potpourri or

melange of information, each teacher must distill and analyze items that can be organized into a mosaic or fabric of learning experiences and adapted to a specific grade level, subject, or class. The classroom teacher thus becomes the educational catalytic agent and in the process opens the doors to the world beyond tomorrow for his pupils.

Momentous Events

The close of the 1960 Olympic games in Rome was a memorable sight. The lights in the stadium were dimmed and the participants and spectators silently dispersed. The Olympic flag with its five interlocking rings was furled and the Olympic flame was returned for another four years.

As the last notes of the band quietly echoed through the empty and darkened stadium and drifted away into the night with only the moon hovering over the rim of the huge amphitheatre, one could not help but reflect on some of the momentous events that had taken place on earth and in space since the last Olympics in Melbourne in 1956. It was difficult, too, for one to resist the temptation to conjecture as to what would happen before the next Olympics in Tokyo in 1964. Some of these events included:

Sputnik I, October 4, 1957, followed by several score of man-made satellites including sub-orbital flights by man. (In all the satellite flights, the United States has a three to one margin over the U.S.S.R. in successful "shots.")

The U.S. submarine Nautilus, the first of many U.S. atomic submarines, with her famous message "heard 'round the world," sent from the North Pole and under the polar ice-cap to the Pentagon August 3, 1958: "Nautilus Ninety North!"

The giant 7500 ton, twin screw, U.S. Atomic Submarine Triton, surpassing Jules Vernes by traveling around the world submerged, 42,370 miles in 84 days.

The U.S. Navy's Bathyscaphe Trieste dropping into the Marianas Trench 35,800 feet, or more than a mile deeper than Mt. Everest is high.

Twenty new nations in Africa in four years, 1956-60.

New names and/or new sovereignity for many countries, e.g., Mali, Congo, Malagasy, Sierra Leone.

Extensive explorations in Antarctica, which is about the size of South America, but 99 per cent unseen and unexplored.

Explorations of inner and outer space.

The International Geophysical Year.

World-wide illiteracy, increasing in both percentages and numbers according to UNESCO.

Many new words, ideas, concepts, and dimensions for the man-on-the-street and for the classroom.

The Future?

All of this and much, much more happened between the Olympics of 1956 and 1960. What about the next four years, 1960-64, from Rome to the Tokyo Olympics? Will we and our students see some of the following things unfold before us, if not by 1964 by 1970? And what are the implications for the curricula and our teaching procedures? O. B. Falls of the General Electric Corporation puts it this way: "If there is one lesson which history has taught us . . . . it is to make no *little* plans, but to be bold and to reach for long-range and seemingly impossible goals." As teachers we should heed the words from Proverbs 29:18—"Where there is no vision the people perish!"

The years 1960-64 may include:

Beachheads in the sky with subplanetary relay and way stations

Mining the ocean floor perhaps with the Reynolds Aluminaut

Synthetic foods from the phytoplankton and zooplankton of the sea

Thermo-couples for cooling and heating and for generating electricity

More oil from the fabulous oil shale and the tar sands deposits

Subplanetary satellite weathercasting
Flights to Europe in an hour or two
Subplanetary cruises
Interplanetary explorations
Making the Sahara another Imperial Valley
Earth-wide and subplanetary 3-D color TV with thousands of channels, large classroom TV screens, and low-priced, portable receivers.

Exploding Knowledge

The explosion of knowledge in the past decade has already been felt to some extent in our schools. The impact will be increasingly greater in the years ahead. As teachers in large numbers search out and work on the cutting edge of the frontiers of new knowledge, important and necessary changes and adaptations will be made in school curricula at all levels. Unfortunately, space will permit reference to only a limited number of general, random, and obvious illustrations.

There is the newer mathematics which has made obsolete much of the mathematics of a few years ago together with the preparation of mathematics teachers. High school and elementary mathematics teachers will find it increasingly necessary to return to college periodically for refresher courses on the newer concepts, processes, and principles of mathematics.

The recent volcanic progress in science will continue unabated at an overaccelerating and breath-taking pace with countless discoveries and new developments solving many problems that have plagued man for centuries, and perhaps creating new ones.

Modern science concepts, knowledges, and principles will permeate much of all education and will extend into the pre-school level with organized units, curricula, and courses of study. The format and formalism of much of the older science content and teaching has been and probably will continue to be rendered obsolete and must be changed to include the new.

Any language is essentially a means of written and oral communication. Facility in the effective, easy, and precise use of a language should not be hindered by the analysis, history, and mechanics of the language. These should be reserved for research and graduate study, except where they will materially and quickly aid in rapid learning for communication. The increasing recognition of language as primarily the medium of written and oral communication is demanding a reassessment of language purposes, content, teaching procedures, and functionalism.

Which language should be taught? The answer is complicated by the increasing proximity and mobility of all peoples, by 3000 languages and dialects, by modern transportation and communication, by national pride, by international economic and political interrelationships, by language changes (e.g., Chinese with its new alphabetical system), by the increasing use of a second language (e.g., English), by the emergence of many new nations with their relatively unknown and unused languages outside their own borders (Hausa, Urdu, Indonesian, Swahili).

Should the language be that spoken by the largest number of people on earth, Chinese? Or should it be the number two (or is it the number one) language, English?

Then there are Hindustani (including Hindu and Urdu), the number three language, and Russian, the number four if one includes places where it is the second language. Where do the "old stand-by's" of German, French,

and Spanish (also Latin and Greek) fit into the language picture? And where do Japanese and Indonesian, which are spoken by almost as many people, fit? What about Hausa of Nigeria and Swahili of East Africa?

There are other questions, too, as we look at the possible function and role of language(s) in the world beyond tomorrow. Where should we begin the teaching of a foreign language in the schools and how long should it take to master a language for effective communication?

There are also the questions of how many languages, and the similarities of languages. What about the cultural, academic, and prestige purposes and values of a foreign language? Is time spent on a language, any language, helpful with most others? Or would it be better to devote the time on the language to be mastered? How do the faculty psychology of several decades ago and transfer in learning fit into the picture, in this dynamic and kaleidoscopic age of acceleration, functionalism, and exploding knowledge?

The social sciences are literally exploding into space together with the physical and natural sciences, and geography is leading the way. There are the geography of inner and outer space, human and place geography, terrestrial geography and the related areas of oceanography, aerology, biogeography, physiography, and geology.

Also, the history, mores, economics, and politics of Sierra Leone, Kuwait, Mali, Iran, Korea, Thailand, Indonesia, Gabon, Angola, and scores of other relatively unkown countries and places of a few years ago are now important and necessary elements in the school curricula of today and tomorrow.

Finally, there is the rapidly expanding vocabulary in all areas of knowledge. There are new names of places and people, and synthetic and abbreviated words and names, together with corollary problems of semantics. There are words like orbital, apogee, perigee, aluminaut, cosmonaut, mach, astronautics, moho (for Mohorovicic), bathyscaphe, picometer, terameter, exosphere, and hundreds of others are being added to the list daily.

These new words and names with their spelling, pronunciation, definition, and use must become an integral part of modern curricula (and perhaps some older words and names must be deleted) if the boys and girls in school today are to be adequately prepared for their world of today and tomorrow.

Empires of the Future

Universal, free public education is the very cornerstone of democracy and the best bulwark of civilization and freedom anywhere. Our schools stand as bright beacons high on a hill as defenders of this great nation, democracy, and civilization. And our schools are cast in the image of their teachers. "The empires of the future will be the empires of the mind," declared the great Sir Winston Churchill. "A teacher affects eternity," observed Henry Adams; "he can never tell where his influence stops." School curricula and the world beyond tomorrow are in the hands of the classroom teacher of today.

Oral Communication[1]

ALBERTA MUNKRES
Professor Emeritus, University of Denver
Denver, Colorado

ORAL communication ranks first among the language arts. People live quite effectively without writing, to any extent, but they cannot meet even their daily needs without talking. They may be very poor readers and care nothing for the art, but they must talk for practical reasons as well as for emotional outlet in companionship. They may be ever so ready and able in the uses of the senses, but of what avail without the ability to communicate the results in words?

Children do not learn to talk well "just naturally." By and large, they learn to make their wants known and to enter into commonplace exchanges with neighbors on matters of most immediate importance, but often find themselves unable to express precise thought on matters of more than personal concern, to think through language, to share true and honest feelings, to capture something of beauty in the words they use.

Many forces play upon children as aids in learning to talk—for better, for worse. First of all comes the home, where any style of talking becomes so much a part of life as to seem natural and right. Back yard, street, and playground have their own powerful influences, while movie, radio, and television dare not be overlooked.

There remains, however, need for definite thought and planned teaching of the art of talking, and this is, quite obviously, the job of the school.

In fulfilling this obligation, the elementary school may teach English as a language with its particular construction, terms, and rules, or it may handle language as a means of communicating or exchanging thoughts and feelings with human beings in social relationships. To the development of the latter point of view the remaining paragraphs of this article are devoted.

Going beyond the School

Communication functions in all social relationships, outside as well as inside the classroom. Telling a story in scout meeting is quite as appropriate as sharing a tall tale in literature period. Discussion is as suitable for handling troubles on the baseball diamond as it is in unraveling cafeteria problems in school. Conversation with peers on the street is as much the order of the day as talking over the results of an excursion to the bakery, in a before-school sharing.

This understanding is important for teachers, that they be not too easily satisfied with the performance of children in supervised school situations; important for children, as a preventive against

1. An article which expresses the point of view to be found in the book *Helping Children in Oral Communication* by Alberta Munkres, published by The Bureau of Publications, Teachers College Columbia University, New York, 1959.

the idea that language is something to be learned and left behind.

Using Entire School Day

Talking functions throughout the entire school day, not in the language period alone. It is essential in carrying on a discussion in social science, thinking about mathematical problems, considering what to do in art.

Talking is particularly related to the other language arts—reading, writing, using the senses. One talks about what he has seen or heard. He reads better than otherwise because he has learned to talk well. His writing is colored by something he has read or the form in which it was written, or the skill with which he speaks. He is motivated to look and listen as helps in making his speech colorful and interesting. Talking is also a part of the in-between times—before the opening hour, when art materials are being passed out, at recess time on a rainy day.

These moments where talking functions in connection with some meaningful experience are learning moments. They are also teaching moments. This is not to deny the value of the direct approach to the teaching of language in a separate period; it is to assert the value of language used in relationships where needed and to suggest that the content of a language study period may be related to the needs and potentialities of learners as revealed through talking.

Teaching What Is Needed

The content of the program in oral communication is determined by the limitations and potentialities (social and linguistic) of a given group, checked against predetermined learnings such as may be found in language books for children.

A teacher does not receive pupils who, however faithful previous teachers may have been, are at the same level of development and represent equal competencies in the handling of language. He falls heir to boys and girls limited by gross colloquialisms, fragmentary ways of touching off vague ideas, hold-overs from other languages (zat and sie)—all of which may be difficult to change because of habit and need for security with family and playmates.

The teacher receives other pupils with potentialities well developed—discriminating vocabulary, correct forms resting easily on the tongue, ease in communicating with peers and adults—and ready for the boost that an insightful teacher can give. Children with varying needs and aptitudes fill the gap between these extremes.

The teacher's job is that of accepting, physically and emotionally, the pupils who come to him and of helping them toward all that is possible for them to become, as persons and as users of the English language. In slogan form this becomes, "Start where you are and go on from there."

What, then, shall we teach this miscellany of pupils? Teach them what they need and what they are prepared to learn. This turns out to be more than the correcting of errors. It is also, and more largely, a matter of inviting to the use of various forms of talking which need further exploration; for example, storytelling and dramatization, not to overlook conversing and discussing, reporting and making speeches. It is sensitizing the ear to sounds which give guidance in speaking the language.

Often, it is a releasing from inhibitions and stultified ways of talking occasioned by the too frequent admonition, "We say it this way."

Using a Variety of Methods

Help comes through different types of teaching—individual and group, incidental and direct, stressing thought and developing form.

Individualization of instruction does not mean tutoring each member of the group. It does mean private help, at times, but it means also handling group work so that individual needs are met—becoming a leader in group discussion, ad libbing in spontaneous dramatization, reporting successfully to one's peers. Indeed, many learnings come only in group relationships, for example, conversing well.

Incidental teaching is not enough. To sense the learning moment is important; to let it pass with nothing more than a bow to coincidental relationships is to miss the teaching moment. Some highlighting of what is happening is often indicated; some direct handling of the learning involved. Beyond this, much direct teaching, either in prospect or follow-up, is necessary for maximum progress. Furthermore, be it said, the language-teaching moment is often but the flowering of a seed planted much earlier by the teacher.

While stressing thought, form must be developed as a means of making ideas clear, interesting, and acceptable to those who speak correctly. Questions appropriate for the learner to ask about thought are, "Do I have an idea?" "Am I saying it clearly?" "Is it interesting to the listeners?" Questions regarding form may be, "Does it sound right?"

Regardless of the method used, provision must be made for repetition. Happy the situation in which rote drill is replaced by meaningful repetition, for which abundant opportunity is afforded in any given school day.

Aiming for Two-fold Growth

The results of teaching are personal and social as well as linguistic in character. Work in small groups may result in feelings of belonging (social) and sticking to the point in discussion (linguistic). Dramatic activities which are spontaneous in character may result in freedom from inhibitions (social) and skill in ad libbing (linguistic). Telling stories to younger children may result in a sense of growing up (social) and ability to choose picture-building words (linguistic).

Calling on Inner Motivation

Wanting to learn is one of the best guarantees of success in any undertaking, and learning to speak the English language well is no exception.

Children ordinarily talk freely in non-school situations (in their own way, to be sure) and like doing it. But to achieve freedom of speech in school situations and, simultaneously, love for learning to talk better, requires attention and effort.

One of the strongest recommendations for the communication approach to the teaching and learning of language is that it helps children think primarily in terms of meaning, rather than form. They use language to a purpose, talking about what they know and what they want to learn, giving what they have to share and getting what they can. This,

in itself, encourages their desire to learn more.

A further boost to inner motivation comes with understanding what talking well can do for a person. Who does not want to be taken into a group, to feel at home at a party? What better guarantee of avoiding feelings of misery in silence than by being a good conversationalist? Who is not proud to say "we" rather than "they" when an important decision has been reached through discussion, be it at home or in school? And who has not felt a lift in having his thoughts clarified through the give and take of solving some problem?

When children are doing what makes sense to them and from inner motivation, to a degree at least, rather than outer compulsion, they are in a position to take suggestions, for they can see the profit which comes to them. If a listener can't understand, they can work toward clarity; if the group doesn't listen, they can find ways of becoming more interesting.

Learning with Pupils

The process of learning to talk well is a life-long task. Happy the teacher who recognizes this and casts himself in the role of learner along with his pupils. In most language competencies he will, naturally, be further along the way than his pupils. In some, however, he may need to bow to members of his group whose skills exceed his own, for example, in creating an imaginary story. This does not mean that the teacher must forever humble himself in the presence of his pupils. He can, however, and with profit, admit gladly a new idea and correspondingly some fault or slip on his own part.

To be learners together encourages both teacher and pupils and builds a spirit of camaraderie conducive to sincerity in the sharing of suggestions, encouragement, even adverse criticism. "Don't be discouraged when you find yourself slipping into old ways of talking," a teacher can say. "Everybody does that, even grownups."

Again, "If your friends and members of your family should happen to smile a bit because you have changed your way of talking, don't let that trouble you. You want to change, don't you? Soon, people will be thinking you've always talked that way." Or hear the teacher inquire, in sincere admiration, after a particularly good story has been told, "How do you do it, Irwin?"

Teaching Grammar

"But what about grammar?" the reader may ask. "Is it not essential to an understanding and effective use of the English language?"

The answer is "Yes," but it carries with it the question as to when grammar can be learned with the greatest effectiveness.

Authorities in the field of language arts believe that the study of grammar does not necessarily help children learn to talk and that it belongs in the curriculum at some point beyond the elementary school where it may help to create variety, interest, and exactness in speaking.[2]

Further justification for this delay in the formal study of grammar is found in the belief that children can learn the

2. Dawson, Mildred A., *Teaching Language in the Grades.* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1951).

structure of the English language with greater ease and effectiveness after they have learned to talk fairly well through hearing correct forms and using them in meaningful situations until they rest easily on the tongue.

For example, after "John and I" has come to sound better than "me and John," "have gone" better than "have went," "he doesn't" better than "he don't," the attaching of labels which explain why one is right and the other wrong can be mastered with comparative ease. Whereas, the learning of labels earlier may only confuse the one whose thought is centered on ideas he wishes to share and feelings he is trying to express.

This leaves to the elementary school, then, the exacting but challenging task of laying the foundation of good usage in the English language and sending boys and girls to junior high school ready, even eager, for the help which insightful teachers may give them in learning to communicate better and better through the use of the English language.

BOOKS FOR YOUNG READERS

FRESH FROM THE COUNTRY. By Miss Read. Illustrated by J. S. Goodall. Boston. Houghton, Mifflin. 1961. $3.50.

"Miss Read" is an English schoolteacher who retired from the profession to write novels. Her stories have charmed a growing public and she pictures English village life. Although *Fresh from the Country* cannot be considered a "juvenile" story, young readers of high school age will find it an altogether delightful experience and their teachers will like it, too. Anna Lucey had spent almost all of her twenty years on her Essex farm. Her kindly parents and her rural friends had never prepared her for the shock of transportation to a raw new suburb for her first year as a teacher. Her experiences, her evaluation of people, and her problems make for delightful reading.—Paul Zankowich

THE DRAGON TREE. By Val Gendron. N. Y. Longmans. 1961. $3.95.

The staggering accomplishments of Alexander, Baron von Humbolt are most adequately told in this book which will delight young scientists. Von Humbolt was scientist, explorer and statesman *par excellence*. The strange dragon tree ironically nurtured in the Botanical Gardens of Berlin symbolized for Alexander the unkown mysteries of the world, mysteries which he vowed one day to solve. His life was really an incredible one and his achievements tremendous. The book is illustrated with photogravures from von Humbolt's works. A must for the science library of the secondary schools.

—Paul Zankowich

PIONEERS OF THE PRESS. By Gerard Previn Meyer. Illustrated by Anthony D'Adaino. Chicago. Rand McNally. 1961. $2.95.

This exciting, well-written and very interesting book tells the story of our first newspapers. Mr. Meyer begins by telling how news was carried in the days before newspapers and he follows this by giving a very colorful picture of Benjamin Harris, the man who set himself up in Boston as bookseller, publisher, and tavern keeper. In September, 1690, Harris decided to publish a newspaper. The first issue, on 4 September, was the last. Then came the Campbell brothers, Duncan and John, who published *The Boston News Letter*. And so on through the years, Mr. Meyer recounts the story of the struggles and the characters in the newspaper game of early colonial days.—P. Z.

Creative Writing

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As our civilization becomes increasingly complex and dependent upon written communication as a means of reaching public and personal understandings, it is most important that talented students in our junior high schools be taught to write coherently. Creative writing is the type of project that will encourage such development.

To accomplish the creation of a good paper or story, it is advisable to devote at least seven or eight class periods to such activity. It is not wise to spend this much time in work on the paper, but there are many preparatory activities which should be scheduled before the writing is begun.

Teacher Outlines Unit

Starting the unit on Monday, the teacher explains that for three days the students will be engaged in preparing to write a paper and that on Wednesday they will commence the actual composition. It is announced that before writing begins, vocabulary enrichment and samples of successful compositions will be read and discussed. It is further stated that the writing assignment will be due the following Monday to allow adequate time for creative inspiration.

After answering any questions of a general nature, it is a successful device to have the teacher read aloud a paper or story that he or she has written. Such subjects as a description of the idiosyncracies of an eccentric grandfather or an account of how the instructor assisted in the capture of a pair of auto thieves during his early teens arouse class interest and discussion.

Vocabulary Development Stimulated

With sufficient interest aroused, the teacher then proceeds for the remainder of that class period, and for an additional period the following day, to stimulate vocabulary development. Explaining that each student will undoubtedly wish to have characters in the paper, the teacher discusses with the class a list of words that describe people. These words need not necessarily be long and pretentious, but rather should be designed to give fullness to the student's creative expression.

Such words as wag, prodigy, dulcet, innocuous, fop, debonair, boorish, and immaculate would be applicable. Other lists describing buildings or houses, beautiful or ugly scenes, and pleasing or embarrassing situations may be discussed. After such acquaintance, it is educationally advisable to have the class members write a number of sentences making correct use of the new words.

Other preliminary exercises may be undertaken during these two periods. The class can be given a list of words such as intelligent, dirty, kind, cruel, and stingy and told to think of as many synonyms as possible for them. At the

end of a given period, a class list is made to show how many words may mean approximately the same thing, but yet have different shades of meaning.

At another time a list of common objects like tree, car, beautiful girl, soda, and prison are listed, and the class is asked to think up as many words as possible that describe these objects.

Students See Previous Mistakes

On the third day of the unit, both periods of a unified English-social studies class are needed to make the final preparations for writing. If the teacher does not have such a class arrangement, a period will be needed the following day.

First the students, as a class, see compositions they have written for other creative writing assignments. These are shown by means of an opaque projector which enlarges the original composition on a movie screen. While this previous work is being shown, the instructor points out technical faults in the writing such as run-on sentences, lack of correct paragraphing, messy writing, faulty spelling, and repetitious use of words. Strong points of other papers may also be pointed out.

It is very effective for students to see colorful descriptive words, realistic conversation, and neat, concise sentences illustrated before them while the teacher explains why these elements make good papers.

After this showing, the students find a list of suggestions for story or essay topics written on the blackboard. "My Term of Service in Washington's Army," "A House of Flying Objects," "My Most Interesting or Favorite Relative," "The Qualities That Make the United States a Great Nation," "A Teenage Quarrel," "My Most Embarrassing Moment," and others of a similar nature provide a varied list.

It is wise that the instructor discuss each topic briefly by carefully pointing out factors to consider in each, recommending possible methods of approach, and even occasionally suggesting a dramatic beginning.

Writing Begins for All

Then the class is given the remainder of the two-hour time block to begin writing, knowing that the papers will be due the following Monday. If any students have conceived topics other than those suggested, they should consult the instructor before starting.

There are always a few, even among the academically talented, who have trouble arriving at a topic or just getting started on their subject. For such situations it is wise to have several "creative writing notebooks" displayed prominently, so that these students may read what others have done.

Occasionally when the essays, character sketches, and stories are handed in, the teacher may wish to redistribute them among the students. The students then spend part of an hour correcting these papers for punctuation, sentence structure, choice of words, spelling, and realism or appropriateness of the paper's contents. The papers are then returned to their owners, re-copied, and handed in to the teacher the following day.

Different Evaluation Methods Followed

When the instructor corrects these papers, several methods may be used. A grade for form and a grade for con-

tent may be given; a list of specific comments may be written out on a separate sheet of paper with one over-all grade; and a check list containing such elements as active verbs, neatness, sentence structure, spelling, content, choice of adjectives, and imagination may be applied. The latter technique will have ratings of excellent, good, fair, and poor.

Upon returning the papers, the teacher may wish to read some of them himself to illustrate creative techniques and content. Occasionally, if the individual students do not object, they may read their own papers aloud. After the reading, the papers can be discussed for realism, interest value, choice of words, and over-all organization.

Compositions Re-collected

After each student has looked over his paper or perhaps kept it overnight, the composition is collected again so that it may be used preparatory to another creative writing assignment at a future date. In this fashion, one paper can be used as a starting point for another, thus making creative writing a cumulative process, rather than a haphazard one.

By effecting these methods, academically talented students can be encouraged to write coherently, interestingly, and effectively. The teaching of such a skill will surely help in the development of tomorrow's successful leaders.

Men grind and grind in the mill of a truism, and nothing comes out but what was put in. But the moment they desert the tradition for a spontaneous thought, then poetry, wit, hope, virtue, learning, anecdote, all flock to their aid.

—Ralph Waldo Emerson, *Literary Ethics*

To be honest, to be kind—to earn a little and spend a little less, to make upon the whole a family happier for his presence, to renounce when that shall be necessary and not to be embittered, to keep a few friends, but these without capitulation—above all, on the same grim condition, to keep friends with himself—here is a task for all that a man has of fortitude and delicacy.

Robert Louis Stevenson, *A Christmas Sermon*

The Spelling Program

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THE teacher is a busy person. Everyone knows this—the principals, pupils, and patrons of her school—but especially does the teacher know this herself. She knows in detail the varied classroom situations she is personally engaged with in her daily teaching; she knows that essential planning and careful preparation cannot be avoided.

Unfortunately, sometimes too much attention to these important details unintentionally detracts from fundamental considerations of a sound program of evaluation. Good teachers need time to appraise critically their current practices in teaching, to observe thoughtfully their pupils in each learning situation, and to think clearly concerning the total educational program in their particular classes. Surely there is a continuous need for teachers to reflect wisely upon the nature and quality of their teaching if they are to be effective.

Consider the teaching of spelling. Does the teacher's evaluation go beyond checking on lighting and seating during a spelling lesson? Is her appraisal more than sensing the teaching-learning atmosphere? Suppose, however, that the teacher actually thinks about the specific procedures and useful techniques she is using in teaching spelling—does she know whether or not the procedures she is using are good ones? Does she know what makes for a good spelling program, or has she forgotten?

With the current interest in space-age science and the perpetual interest in the teaching of reading, many teachers may find themselves out of touch with spelling instruction. And yet mis-spelling by children entering high school and entering the business world is a common complaint of some school patrons and elements of the public in general. It seems important, therefore, for teachers to understand clearly perhaps first the basic premises of a sound spelling progam if evaluation is to be worth while and practical.

Some Premises

Children must become convinced that correct spelling is important in order for a program of instruction to succeed. They, as do adults, gain impressions in many ways as to the values that are placed upon different beliefs and issues. Teachers must constantly keep in mind that children are weighing what is presented to them in school and are deciding what will be of value to them and what will not. They may do this quite unconsciously, but they are continually doing it.

In order to teach spelling successfully these premises must be held upon which proper evaluation is based:

1. Spelling correctly is an achievement that is important socially. The teacher must think so and provide evi-

dence of this thinking to her pupils. Spelling instruction must never be approached by the teacher as something that is being done only because it is required.

2. Spelling is a skill—one of the many interrelated language arts skills. This skill cannot be developed without the development of related skills in reading, listening, speaking, and writing.

A child has to have heard and to have read many words, and to have gained much information and many thoughts, in order to want to express himself. He must have had many experiences in oral composition and he must have felt the urge to communicate orally in order to want to write and, thus, have need to spell.

3. All persons can learn to spell at least the minimum number of words they will need in their writing. As with any other kind of learning, wide variations exist in the abilities needed to learn to spell. Not all children will be ready for beginning spelling instruction at the same time, nor will all be able to learn an equal number of words. Persons of low intelligence are rarely good spellers, but there is ample evidence that even these persons can learn to spell correctly the words which they need most.

4. Spelling needs to be given attention throughout the school day. Motivation to do well in spelling class will not carry over to other writing activities unless attention to correct spelling is stressed. Children should not necessarily be expected to know how to spell every word they need to write, but they must be concerned about their spelling and want to look for and receive help in spelling and to have their final written products spelled correctly.

5. The spelling program must be based upon definite objectives. The principal objective of any spelling lesson is to learn to spell the specific words of the lesson. When this has been accomplished the goal has been reached and it is time to broaden the objective, or to move on to the next objective. The spelling program must provide for children using their time and energy efficiently and economically.

Spelling Check List

With a firm grasp of the foregoing premises, the classroom teacher should find the following check list as a convenient reminder and aid to evaluating her spelling program.

1. Is the spelling program organized in light of available research evidence for such organization? For example, does the program
   - ..... call for spelling periods which total approximately 75 minutes weekly?
   - ..... make use of pre-test to determine each pupil's spelling goal?
   - ..... show concern for correct spelling by urging children throughout the day to turn to the dictionary for help with their spelling?
   - ..... show evidence of recognition of individual pupil differences in spelling ability and achievement?
2. Does the teacher motivate interest in correct spelling by
   - ..... showing that the words in the spelling lesson are words which persons often have need to write?
   - ..... have a language program which calls for much purposeful writing—letters, summaries, records, reports?

_____ permitting each child to keep a record of his spelling progress?
_____ showing that written communication is less effective if there are errors in spelling?

3. Does the teacher use good instructional practices, such as
_____ developing with the children a specific study procedure?
_____ pronouncing words rapidly enough during tests to prevent dawdling?
_____ allowing children to mark their own test papers?
_____ asking pupils to proofread carefully all written work?

4. Does the teacher provide instruction adapted to individual differences, such as
_____ grouping children for instruction according to their specific spelling needs and abilities?
_____ providing appropriate study help to the poor speller to insure for him some degree of success?
_____ challenging the superior spellers beyond the daily assignment intended for the average?

5. Can questions such as these concerning the materials used in the spelling class be answered in the affirmative?
_____ Are the words taught those of high social utility to children and adults?
_____ Are the exercises in the spelling textbook or workbook directed at building favorable attitudes toward spelling and at the teaching of the spelling of specific words?
_____ Are there enough dictionaries in each classroom for pupils to use whenever needed?
_____ Are the exercises and activities of the spelling program varied enough to prevent monotony and the loss of interest?

6. Are you familiar enough with each child and his school record to know if he
_____ has any physical handicaps which might impair his progress in spelling?
_____ has the reading ability probably necessary to learn spelling at the the level being attempted?
_____ has the mental capacity to perform the tasks called for in spelling class?
_____ is deficient in the development of auditory discrimination skill?

7. Are you evaluating the spelling program in the classroom by
_____ comparing the children's ability to spell certain words with the reports given in a published spelling scale?
_____ noting increasing and decreasing interest in correct spelling on the part of pupils?
_____ using a check list such as this?

Few persons go through life without having frequent need to spell. Every time a person writes—if only his name—he needs to spell. And regardless of the formality or informality of the writing, spelling must be such that communication between the writer and reader is not hampered or prevented.

Of course, it is possible for some communication to take place with a few of the words incorrectly spelled; however, most persons frequently need to do writing for which the spelling must be correct in order for the communication to have the desired effect. Therefore, if this goal is to be achieved, a teacher must base her program upon sound premises in teaching spelling.

Elementary School Science

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DURING the first few years of the Sputnik Age, several questions have repeatedly arisen concerning science in our schools, particularly science in the elementary schools. The parent asks: "Why aren't the schools teaching science?" The secondary school science teacher asks: "If they begin to teach science throughout the grades, won't they spoil my course by exposing the child to science too early in life?" The elementary school teacher asks: "Am I now supposed to become a science expert, too?"

It is becoming increasingly clear that neither the majority of teachers nor the general public has yet become aware of the potential educative values inherent in the twelve year sequence of science for the public school student. Even in the school systems that have put curriculum committees to work on this problem, we must expect a great deal of in-service training to take place before the majority of the teachers understand what science is and what will be their role in the teaching of science.

We cannot ignore science in the elementary school. If we believe that part of the function of the school is to assist the child in the interpretation of his environment, we cannot turn our backs on that part of the environment which is scientific or technological. We and the children use science and technology hundreds of times every day, performing biological functions according to physical and chemical laws, and using the fruits of technology to live a more efficient life.

If science is important as a part of the curriculum, and yet there is a great deal of confusion concerning how it fits into the curriculum, perhaps we should pause to define our terms. What is science? What are its objectives in the school? How do we organize it? What does it include? What methods do we use in teaching it? What materials are available?

What Is Science?

Science is a way of thinking and problem-solving that concerns itself with the physical and natural environment of the child. This definition would appear to be similar to a definition of social studies, language arts, or any other area of the curriculum. All we might do to define other areas is change the words "physical and natural" to "social" or "language." This would seem to reinforce the contention that science cannot be omitted from the curriculum at any grade level, lest we leave out the study of an important part of the environment.

When we ask for a definition of science from the teacher who retired during the first quarter of this century, it is quite likely that we may hear, "Science is the study of nature." Since about 1925, however—thanks to monumental

work done by various groups, notably the National Society for the Study of Education—teachers have come to regard the term "Nature Study" as rather restrictive. The children of today should also be studying physical science (light, heat, sound, electricity, magnetism, chemical changes, etc.) and earth science (minerals, heavenly bodies, weather, etc.), and not confine themselves to the consideration of biological phenomena exclusively.

What Are the Objectives?

The objectives of science are basically no different from the objectives of any other curriculum area. These might be listed as (1) to develop functional concepts and principles based on facts, (2) to develop instrumental and problem-solving skills, (3) to develop desirable attitudes toward appreciations for, and interest in the pupils' physical and natural environment. While it is true that in science we may consider different principles or instrumental skills than we do in social studies, all areas of the curriculum are extensions of the same environment and, therefore, have roughly the same objectives.

How Do We Organize the Program?

The over-all organization, as advocated by the National Society for the Study of Education, and, on the local level, by many state and regional organizations such as the Michigan Science Teachers Association, might be characterized by the term "expanding concept" method of organization during the first six years of the child's school life.

In this type of organization, most of the areas of science are explored each year, and principles are built up as the child advances from grade to grade. For example, in the first grade, the child might find out that a magnet will attract certain metals, and that green plants will not stay green without sunlight. As he progresses through the grades, facts are built into principles, new facts lead to new principles, and thus in the sixth grade he may learn how navigators use compasses and that the ultimate source of the earth's energy is the sun. In this way the child's knowledge and understandings increase throughout the grades, from specific to general, in all areas of science.

It must be pointed out parenthetically that the organization mentioned in the above paragraph disturbs some high school and junior high school teachers. Their point of view is that when the child reaches their science class, he has been exposed to science to such a degree that there is little left to teach him. This does not necessarily ring true, since often only a revision of the course syllabus would be necessary.

How much more could be accomplished, on the other hand, by the science teacher who is willing to reorganize. If the child entering the secondary school knows what a cell is, what photosynthesis means, the relationship between magnetism and electricity, the atomic theory, etc., much more time could be available to the science teacher for deeper considerations of ecology, heredity, electronics, and organic chemistry.

On the level of specific classroom organization, there are four basic types, and the one that the teacher may choose would be the one that fits most naturally into her methodology.

The first type could be called the

logical scientific order type of organization. In this type, the child would study lower plants and animals and work up to flowers, trees, and mammals; he would study magnetism and work into electricity, then to electronics, and so forth, starting with the simple and working toward the complex. The pitfall in this method is that children's minds do not always work in this manner. Often motivation is killed before we reach the flower or the television set, which is what interested him in the first place.

The second type of organization is the conceptual type. In this, we would direct all of our explorations toward the eventual evolution of some broad principle, such as "all living things depend on one another." A drawback to this method is that a broad principle may well take the entire year to evolve, and we have slighted the other areas of science during that time. Sometimes we never really appreciate the principle. Each one of us, for example, each day adds to our store of knowledge some new item of information that expands and reinforces the above-mentioned principle.

The third type of organization might be called the environmental-problem type. In this type, the teacher who uses some form of broad unit type of work would help the children plan units based upon science rather than another curriculum area. For example, the class might study "health in our city." This method may take a great deal of time, and thus may slight other science areas.

The fourth organization is the integrated type. Most of the things that are studied by the class have scientific overtones. As the class discusses communication, transportation, or food, it considers radio, internal combustion engines, and gardening. In addition, children are free to pursue special scientific interests during activity times.

As a last caution in the area of organization, it would be quite unrealistic to schedule magnetism in the first grade, plants in the second, etc., without returning to these subjects from year to year. Obviously the child cannot learn all he should know about magnetism at the first grade level, and he should not have to wait until sixth grade to learn something about electricity or the human body. It would appear that, regardless of what method of organization we choose in the classroom, we should build upon what has been learned in the preceding years.

What Does Science Include?

Science in the elementary school includes three basic areas: biological science (botany and zoology), physical science (chemistry and physics), and earth science (geology, astronomy, and meteorology). It has often been observed that this description tends to frighten some elementary school teachers who feel inadequate in the realm of scientific knowledge.

Another method of describing the scope of elementary school science is to divide it into four areas: (1) the earth and the universe; (2) living things and the conditions necessary to life; (3) physical and natural phenomena; (4) man's attempt to control his environment.

What Methods Do We Use?

Once again, the methodology of science is no different than the methodol-

ogy of any other curricular area. In science, we utilize experimentation, demonstration, reading, observation, field trips and other audio-visual aids, discussions, reports, and projects.

What Materials Do We Use?

For the teacher in search of materials, it should be pointed out that, in general, the more familiar the material, the more immediate the response on the part of the pupil. Therefore, those materials from the home environment would be of more meaning than would complicated machines ordered from supply houses. In addition, they are cheaper and more accessible. We should not overlook general school equipment, such as the machines in the boiler room or living things on the school property, high school equipment (begged, borrowed, or stolen), or community resources such as industry, business, or people who will come into the classroom to explain points to the children.

Where Do We Go from Here?

In talking with curriculum committees, principals, superintendents, and science methods classes on both the graduate and the undergraduate level, I seem to detect one undeniable trend that has become more and more widespread during the past few years, particularly during the last year. This trend is that science should be a part of general education for all children. That is, six years of conceptual scientific learnings, followed by three years of a more abstract general science in junior high school, followed by a year of general biology, a year of general physical science, and a year of almost unlimited specialization in high school, followed by more specialization in junior college. As yet, this concept seems, to a large extent, to be held by people in elementary school work and not by those in secondary and higher education. However, the junior high schools have not, in most locations, received the students who are products of a good elementary school science program.

Other trends in elementary school science seem to be toward flexibility and integration with the other areas of the curriculum. Science is current and ever-changing; therefore, the instruction in science must be flexible. Science is only a part of the environment of the child, so it should be integrated with the other parts of the environment in the curriculum.

Let us hope that "Sputnik Hysteria" does not force the elementary school teacher into offering specialized science courses based exclusively on the acquisition of facts.

In composing, as a general rule, run your pen through every other word you have written; you have no idea what vigor it will give your style.

Sidney Smith, *Recipe for Salad*

The Social Studies Dependent on Reading

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THERE is a strange dilemma between the curricular areas of the social studies and reading. In many elementary school classrooms, the social studies, too often, is only the reading of a text, and for too many children, particularly in the middle grades, the reading level of that text is too difficult. True, to be efficient in the social studies the child must be able to read effectively, but the social studies is not primarily a curriculum area for the concentration on reading skills.

Through the reading of books the child must be capable of enriching his social concepts, solving social problems, and satisfying his curiosity regarding history and geography. Through written information he should enlarge his attitudes and appreciations in man's social achievements. But there would seem to be some difficulties for the classroom teacher in achieving these reading objectives in the social studies.

The Textbook in the Social Studies

One difficulty is the type of reading materials used in the social studies. Admittedly the chief source of reading material is the social studies textbook series. The wise teacher uses a few copies from each of several textbook series. Social studies texts are encyclopedic in nature and are best used to introduce or conclude a unit.

Children can compare information of one text with another when several different texts are used in a classroom. There are some slight differences in reading level of one text compared to another, and these differences can be used to meet the reading needs of a group of children. One text is more suited to the fast reader while another may emphasize a particular concept in greater detail.

Many children secure much benefit from the illustrations, photos, and maps which accompany the reading material of a text. The use of several texts widens and extends their use of these reading aids and thus their social understandings. Generally, however, the text should be used as a source to secure a broad survey of a particular social studies unit, to synthesize a particular concept, or to locate certain geographic or historic detail.

Purchase of Books

It is wise for a teacher to supplement the social studies text with yearly book purchases of fiction and non-fiction suited to the reading ability of the chil-

dren and related to the social studies concepts of that grade. Competent sources should be used in the purchasing of such materials (2-6). Those books selected should allow the child to extend himself beyond the textbook into situations, times, and places which he will never know directly. Through such extra reading he can explore those aspects of life and living about which he is curious and eager to know more than than the textbook can offer.

The teacher should maintain a balance in her purchase of these supplementary materials. One year she will purchase those books which will enlarge the child's understanding of living with family, friends, community groups, or with others quite different from himself. Another year she might purchase books which will develop the child's concepts of other lands, of history, of natural resources, or of social inventions.

Current Materials as Reading Sources

Current materials are excellent sources of reading for the social studies. Past and recent issues of *Life* and *Look* magazines, of *The National Geographic*, of *Holiday*, of *Ebony*—which often accumulate in basements and will be gladly donated by an interested parent —give fine photographic descriptions of geographic locations and historic events.

Many industries and commercial companies have reading materials suitable for the social studies (1), as do the foreign embassies of Washington, D. C. Such materials should be labeled carefully and filed once the unit for which that material is suitable has been completed. An up-to-date neatly prepared bulletin board of current, pertinent newspaper clippings is another source of casual reading material for the social studies.

The Slow Reader

The slow reader is too often not capable of achieving reading objectives in the social studies though much reading material is available. It would seem to the teacher than this child never finishes his reading assignment; his reading pace never allows him to complete his work. There are several techniques the teacher might use to quicken this child's reading pace.

She may ask the child to place a card under the line he is reading and thus use the card line by line. The child's attention is focused on the immediate reading material and does not wander all over the page. Suggesting that the child read an important selection several times through, and using a stopwatch to motivate his speed on each reading can be effective. Changing the child's reading materials containing a similar central concept can help him to skim.

A child is often a slow reader because he reads one word at a time. Instructing this child to find quickly a particular concept in a paragraph is one remedial technique. Another technique is to have him read orally to a group of children or to the teacher or to himself. Many slow readers do not know how to attack new words. Reviewing the use of the dictionary, assigning dictionary games based on the social studies, and reviewing the basic phonetics are aids to these children.

An attractive word ladder, sketched on the blackboard leading to a map of that country, or a portrait of that historical figure about which the unit cen-

ters, is a tool of motivation. Each rung of the ladder would contain a key word from the reading selection which is new to the children. A map of the country under study, outlined on the board in key words, can be effective.

Difficult words from the social studies reading can be written on manila tags, placed on the border of the blackboard and used as flash cards. If the slow reader has an extra reading assignment in the social studies, he should complete it during the time of the day when he is most alert for reading and, if possible, in a quiet corner of the room.

The Non-Comprehensive Reader

Then there is the reader in the social studies who isn't able to secure answers from his reading to fact questions. He reads but is not able to comprehend what he reads. Such a child should be given specially designed questions which are short and to the point and which require definite and precise answers. Composing riddles built about the social studies readings is one method of helping this child. Unison oral reading of the group gives this child auditory aid in securing meaning from the reading assignment.

An effective exercise for the child who has difficulty in securing meaning from his reading is to have him place his finger on that section of the paragraph where he believes the answer to the question may be found. Another good exercise is to have selected social studies questions on flash cards. These are kept on his desk as the child skims easily digested reading material for the answers. Thus the child has the question continually before him as he searches for the precise answer.

The child who has difficulty in determining special answers to social studies problems from his reading is often ineffective in sharing the group or committee reading assignment. This child may need individual instruction in how to use the index or table of contents in the books assigned to him. He may not understand how to use an encyclopedia. Too often, he has never been taught how to outline or summarize his reading project; he believes a written report is prepared by copying paragraphs wholesale from the encyclopedia or books he is using. Such a child needs much individual attention.

No child can be successful in the social studies without the skills of reading. Reading complements the social studies. The social studies is rich in reading materials. It offers endless opportunities to practice and develop reading abilities. It challenges the child to explore and widen his reading horizons. But the professional teacher is constantly aware that reading in the social studies is only a means to an end.

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Geography — The Forgotten Science

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On many occasions, the history of American education has revealed a tendency toward extremes, and the recent impetus given to the study of science and mathematics is no exception. Concentration upon this one segment of our academic offerings has led to the neglect of other areas that are equally in need of strengthening.

Over-emphasis on any field, such as science or mathematics, often leads to indifference with regard to other subjects. Periodic examination of our educational structure is to be desired, but extremes should be by-passed for research on a united front rather than on a fragmented or "broken" front.

This article will attempt to show that much of value has resulted from the revision of science programs. However, one glaring weakness has remained. This refers to the place and function of geography in the curriculum. If we accept a basic definition of geography as the study of the environment as it bears on the life of man, is it realistic to disregard a subject which is of such value to students?

The Problem

Curriculum planners state that if one phase of a course of study is deficient, e.g., geographic training, the students' education remains incomplete. Geography in the American high school has been almost totally ignored. An accurate indication of this condition is reflected in the annual listing of secondary school courses provided by any of the state departments of education. Here is manifested the startling fact that very few high schools offer any course in geography. Where such a course is offered, it usually takes one of two forms: (1) economic geography or (2) some form of social studies.

Further examination of this policy indicates that the teaching of economic geography by frequently unqualified instructors is often more unsatisfactory than no course offering. Such a course easily becomes mere recitation of facts resulting in student dislike of "geography."

Geography presented as part of a social studies course is questioned because the geographical aspect of the course is neglected in favor of history, political science, etc. This is due to the poor preparation of the instructor and the poor geographical background of the students.

Reasons for This Condition

This analysis of the position of geography in our system shows that it is overlooked by American educators. There are two main reasons: (1) poor

teaching at the elementary level and (2) oversight on the part of secondary schools and colleges.

If the elementary school teacher presents geography as a boring mass of facts, the result is that pupils evoke a dislike of the subject. Teachers at this level must review and master the geographical content and must improve teaching methods. Poor teaching here results in high school boys and girls wishing to avoid the subject.

Lack of geography courses at the high school level can be traced to our colleges and universities. They are not affording students the opportunity to work profitably in this area. If the high school instructor is expected to teach a subject in which he has had no training, the damage done can be disastrous. Students then only increase their distaste for a subject they had previously learned to dislike. If the college does not consider geography important enough to include in its curriculum, why should the high schools prepare a student in this field?

Need of Increased Emphasis

Should geography be included in the course offerings of all schools? Is geography important for boys and girls graduating into a world where the interdependence of nations demands a knowledge of national and international problems? The answer is obvious.

How can a thorough background in history be obtained without understanding the geographic factors that have influenced the course of history, and are even now shaping world policy?

Students could not grasp the significance of the present problems or the future trends of any country without prior knowledge of its land and its people.

Interest and Motivation

A further question to be resolved is that of student interest in this subject. Frequently, it is pointed out that geography is nothing but a compilation of facts and is impossible to teach in the high school. Also, since the political boundaries of nations are constantly undergoing change, the difficulty of presenting geography to students is overwhelming. These objections reflect ignorance concerning what constitutes the geographic body of knowledge.

Geography can be an absorbing part of the curriculum if only teachers are afforded the opportunity to prepare themselves thoroughly and are willing to engage in research of their own. If a high school teacher of geography is interested enough to explore the history of this subject, he will be rewarded with intriguing and stimulating information that will go far in overcoming the disinterest and apathy of any student.

What Is Geography?

A more comprehensive definition of geography would indicate that geography is the study of the differentiation of the earth's surface, as shown in the character, arrangements, and interrelations over the world of elements such as climate, soil, vegetation, population, states, etc. Why is this more detailed definition presented here? Simply to emphasize that geography, as an independent body of knowledge, presents essential knowledge of both the natural and social sciences, that our students should possess.

To permit geographic illiteracy to grow as it has in America, because of the "difficulty of presentation" due to changing times, is identical with a position that physics should not be taught because of the changes brought about by nuclear fission.

The shifting of political boundaries reflects dynamic factors and in no way "discredits" geography. This is apparent today when nations desire the deposits of a neighboring country and take steps to acquire these products. Supporting evidence is the growth of the United Arab Republic with its prize deposits of oil. This brings to the classroom a concrete example of the manner in which the environment shapes the destiny of men and nations.

As long as geography is "kept alive" in this fashion, there will be no problem of student disinterest and dislike. Difficulty arises when it is presented to students as a mere exercise in statistics, e.g., how many people here, how many tons of coal there, etc. Any subject taught in this manner will arouse student antagonism.

The question now arises as to the manner in which geography programs can be introduced into the school utilizing methods that will foster and sustain student interest.

Suggested Procedures

The secondary school is the ideal place in which to establish a systematic approach to the study of geography. It is here that the regional knowledge acquired in the elementary school may be expanded, and a more intensive study made of the geographic factors that affect the life of man.

A more intensive analysis should be undertaken in the elementary school of the type of geography course presented. A thorough knowledge of the fundamentals should be mastered by the pupils, coupled with the beginnings of regional geography. Assuming that this would be carried out in the intermediate grades, basic concepts of land and water, together with a study of the United States, could be introduced in grade four. Grades five and six could then be devoted to a study of the other continents, selecting certain representative countries for study, as typical of a given region.

In determining the place of geography in the secondary school curriculum, no attempt is made here to state *what* must be taught *when*. This is the task of the independent school system.

As an aid in developing such a program, curriculum planners are agreed that four issues must be considered:

1. Goals
2. Learning Experiences
3. Organization
4. Evaluation

Goals

There are unlimited possibilities of widening the student's horizon when the task of choosing from the many and varied branches of geography is undertaken. Which serves the purpose of this system best: regional geography, geocultural problems, physical geography, etc., or should a sequence of these courses be offered?

The decision must be made in the light of the above four basic issues. In ascertaining the goals of the program, the type of student must be considered, the future of the student beyond high school, the over-all needs of the teen-

age youth. All these factors influence the selection of courses that will best achieve the desired goals.

Also, in determining the material to be included in such a program, experts in the field of geography should be consulted. But, it is extremely important that such experts be acquainted with the local problems and the nature of the student population. Otherwise, subject matter specialists might formulate objectives that are unattainable for the students involved.

Learning Experiences

The learning experiences applicable to any of the above-designated courses are many and varied. They might encompass class discussions, field trips, movies, guest lecturers, exercises in cartography, projects, written analyses of problem areas in the world, etc. These are only a few of the many activities possible, and are far removed from the "facts only" course.

Organization

The organization of the learning experiences brings into focus one of the most damaging indictments that may be made against geography as now taught. This refers to the tradition-cloaked method of entering a classroom at any level, day upon dreary day, and lecturing on dull, uninteresting factual material.

Sheer subject matter organization is not sufficient. A wide variety of activities should be engaged in by the students. This refers to the question of continuity and sequence. There must be repetition of basic material (continuity) but there must also be an expansion of this knowledge from time to time on a systematic basis (sequence).

Evaluation

Testing specialists emphasize the fact that evaluation is a constant process. This concept should be accepted in the planning of the geography program. Students should be administered a pretest upon entering the secondary school program, followed by regular quizzes and examinations which will determine if objectives are being attained. The terminal point of high school education should not be the terminal point of evaluation.

One of the truest indications of the value of this new program would be a survey of graduates showing their knowledge of world affairs, understanding of the geographic factors influencing national decisions, etc. In this manner, an accurate indication of the effectiveness of the program could be ascertained.

Improvement in Methods

Thus far, attention has been focused on means of improving the content of the courses. Let us now turn our attention to the problem of improving the caliber of teaching.

The teaching of geography has been woefully inadequate. In attempting to better this situation, a two-pronged attack is recommended—one of which is aimed at the teacher in training, the other at the experienced teacher.

If the geography program that has been previously suggested is followed, the student should approach the teacher training institution with a reasonably strong background in this field. It then

becomes the duty of the teacher's college or school of education to enrich the content of this science, and at the same time, emphasize the methods aspect. This means that students need carefully selected, advanced, interesting textbooks, coupled with class work of a varied nature—lectures, discussions, seminars, etc.

With a discreetly arranged sequence of courses, presented in a lively and advanced manner, the student would become aware of the tremendous scope of this science, and would realize how much he in turn could broaden the education of *his* students.

As far as the experienced teacher is concerned a different approach is directed. From a practical viewpoint, teachers return to a graduate school for two reasons:

1. Self-improvement by attainment of a Master's degree or a Doctorate.
2. Many school systems require a certain number of credits for additional increments.

In either case, courses in this area could be recommended or required. This imposes a heavy responsibilty on the instructor of such a course. His students need both content and methodology. Therefore, a vigorous, required reading list, plus classwork to enlarge these concepts, should be coupled with techniques of cartography, projects, presentation of world problems and other acceptable methods from the geographic viewpoint. A two-semester sequence is desired.

For undergraduates, these courses should be required of all directly involved in teaching geography, and should be highly stressed for all students, on an elective basis, whether Liberal Arts, Business, etc. For the experienced teacher, graduate work or in-service training on the same basis is advised.

As a result of the above-mentioned plan, it is hoped that the quality of teaching in this area would be greatly improved. It is also felt that teachers in other fields would increase their perspective of world affairs, and thus improve their own teaching.

Future Trends

The value of geography courses in the secondary school curriculum and a suggested method for introducing them into the program of studies have been described to this point. Now, it is advisable to clarify certain foreseeable patterns that are emerging at all levels of our educational system.

There is little doubt that a growing awareness of the need for geography will gradually lead to a greater number of course offerings. Elementary school teachers should be able to provide boys and girls with a strong background of fundamentals. Their training as future teachers must provide them with the ability to carry out this function.

At the secondary school level, a multiplicity of offerings is envisioned providing for continuity, sequence, and integration. Integration is mentioned here in order to emphasize the vital role of geography in furnishing background material for related sciences. A careful arrangement of courses is foreseen that will give students understandings in regional, physical, cultural, and economic areas. The wealth of material available will furnish students with an academic and practical knowledge that will be invaluable both for the college-bound and vocational-bound student.

If a trend toward more intensive work in the secondary schools is developed, this means more geography courses will be offered in the field of higher education. While stressing the need for adequately trained teachers of geography, the notion of "geography for all" should be likewise urged at the college level. Thus, students in schools of education, business schools, and liberal arts schools, will receive instruction in geography as an integral phase of their education.

There is a steady growth in course offerings in the colleges that is readily discernible. At first, one course in Regional Patterns is given which attempts to study the world, its peoples, and resources, in one semester. Realizing the futility of this, the college next accepts the idea of presenting one semester of Physical Geography, followed by a semester in Regional Patterns. The next logical step is that of establishing a department of geography and graduating majors in this field.

It is hoped that these trends will continue and hasten the day when students at all levels will derive from their contact with our public schools a thorough and usable geographic education. Otherwise, their schooling is incomplete and their value as voting citizens in a democracy is considerably lessened.

Most of the luxuries, and many of the so-called comforts, of life are not only not indispensable, but positive hindrances to the elevation of mankind.

—Henry David Thoreau, *Walden*

Ah, nothing is too late,
Till the tired heart shall cease to palpitate.
Cato learned Greek at eighty; Sophocles
Wrote his grand Oedipus, and Simonides
Bore off the prize of verse from his compeers,
When each had numbered more than fourscore years.

—Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, *Morituri Salutamus*

A Functional Economic Geography Program

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If the reader reminisces about his school days, he will probably recall taking a course in economic geography and the monotonous memorization of lists of dull products, natural resources, and production figures entailed. Do mnemonics, per se, have a real value for today's high school youth? Unless the assignment is meaningful, the resultant lesson will be dull, routine, and lacking in direction; the seed is thus planted for disciplinary difficulties.

Children should enjoy studying and participating in geography classes. It is the teacher's duty to arouse interest on the part of the learner in order to teach the skills, attitudes, and ideals projected as the proper goals of a sound geographic education.

An Experience

The maintenance of good discipline need not be a trial to the teacher, just as learning about the world's resources need not be an insuperable problem to the student. Learning can be meaningful and disciplinary challenges can be allayed if the names and statistics and products of our earth can be seen, handled, and compared.

It is futile to discuss river-dredging for tin in British Malaya when the student's own concept of this vital metal is erroneously incased in the so-called tin can! However, when a student can handle photographs pictorially showing tin dredges at work, not to mention the use of tin ore and slab samples, the whole experience takes on a new meaning.

Likewise, the acquisition and use of factual information so necessary to the geographic discipline have meaning and become assimilated as part of the individual student's synthesis.

While general programs in economic geography study the resources of the world, the experience of this investigation need not be foreign to the student's thinking. Such study can be experienced actually by the student, or it can be conveyed vicariously through the medium of a textbook. The mediocre teacher will merely discuss the textbook, while the alert instructor will stimulate the student to see that most of the world's resources are used in his own community.

A display of such items will create a feeling of world interdependence within the student. This concept is but one of the many that the geography teacher is obligated to instill in his students, and this goal can be attained easily by employing the use of graphic materials and the student's creative abilities.

The Exhibit

A key to making economic geography, or any subject involving similar disciplines, graphic is the student exhibit.

Committee procedure is an ideal method of obtaining product samples ranging in scope from asbestos to zinc. The committee is concerned with a product or resource area. It compiles an address list of manufacturing concerns, mining enterprises, etc., involved in the production and distribution of the selected product. A letter is composed, typed, and mailed. A well-written letter will usually bring the desired results.

While some members of the committee proceed, possibly with the aid of the industrial arts department, to mount the acquired material in a presentation form, other members of the committee are preparing the report. The report is presented with the finished exhibit. The committee will never forget its experience—or learning. The class will remember the committee's work.

What actually has been learned? The paramount geographic objective has been accomplished, while certain latent skills and attitudes have developed concurrently. Students have learned to work together for a common goal, and pride is taken in their labor. Manual ability and organizational skills appear.

Unconsciously, an interest and appreciation of research develops in the student. The correspondence and report aspect teaches the student reporters to think effectively, write concisely, and speak with assurance. The class listens attentively, yet every student is a real participant.

Make Use of the Business World

Often a commercial enterprise will send, gratis, an already-mounted exhibit. The value of this type of exhibit should not be underestimated, as the display is professionally prepared, and the teacher need not overemphasize its commercial aspects. The real learning experience is achieved, however, as the students prepare their own exhibit. Pride and accomplishment are fostered by a finished product that is created by the students.

School and Community

Many schools provide hall exhibit cases. Such exhibit cases serve as windows on the world to the student in other classes as well as to the community at large. The possibilities of fostering desirable school-community relations through this medium are unlimited. Just as every student desires to see his efforts on public display, so does the parent take a silent pride in his youngster's accomplishment.

Summary

Every teacher knows that in instructing his particular discipline there are times when it is particularly difficult to maintain a student interest in the subject which is equivalent to his own. This is the ideal opportunity to involve the child in the teaching situation.

We should not teach facts for the sake of "facts," per se, but we should strive to build "concepts." Too many teachers spend too much time talking about facts without trying, by planned activities, to get students to see the meaning of the facts which have been presented. Ira Wilder has stated it more directly: "Too many teachers spend too much time talking."

We are in a "do it yourself age." Is there not a valid argument for more "do it yourself learning" under the guiding hand of the experienced teacher?

College Education Requirements

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Two ideas have come to dominate the American concept of education. The first idea is that of "professional education." Stated simply this means that schools of education are somehow separated from the university. In other words, only those students who intend to become members of the teaching profession take courses in the school of education. The second idea is manifested in the fact that people in general have abdicated their right to teach to those who are ostensibly qualified and certified as "professional" teachers.

Both ideas are erroneous. Every person is a teacher. Doctors teach patients to live in health. Lawyers teach juries and judges the law. Salesmen teach clients. Priests, ministers, and rabbis teach their congregation the road to spiritual improvement. Indeed the term "rabbi" means teacher. Foremen teach workers. Officers teach non-commissioned officers and enlisted men.

The list is virtually endless. But no aspect of informal teaching is more important than that of the role of the parent, and no aspect of education is more neglected. A general reading of any college catalogue and one would be forced to assume that the possibility of any of their students ever becoming parents simply does not exist in the minds of college presidents and deans.

The parents, unexposed to the proper teaching method, fall back generally upon two techniques to instruct their offspring. They utilize any spontaneous idea or method rather than a carefully thought out means of providing instruction, or they rely upon past methods, methods used by their parents or by themselves that worked previously.

Four Basic Courses

There are four courses that are basic to the idea that all are teachers. These courses should be required in every college curriculum. The first course should be child psychology; the second, adolescent psychology. In order to make wise decisions concerning the social, moral, and intellectual upbringing of their children, parents should know the scientific laws of human growth and development.

It would appear self-evident that a course in human anatomy and physiology should precede the courses in psychology, or if this is too much to ask for, the principles of anatomy and physiology should be incorporated in the courses of child and adolescent psychology.

The third required course should be methods of instruction. This should be a general methods course. Students who intend to become public school teachers would take, upon the completion of this course, another methods course in the area wherein they intend to specialize, e.g. social studies methods.

All students, education included,

would take the required methods of instruction course. The course would be heterogeneous in student population. It would offer three hours credit, as the other three would. General methods of instruction, including various recommended techniques, should be incorporated. Emphasis should be placed upon the scientific method.

Questions are vital to children, thus the course should include techniques in assisting children to formulate questions. The dialectic and discussion method should be a fundamental part of the curriculum of the methods class. The good aspect and the bad aspect of the lecture method would have to be taken up in the course. Since children tend to have the attitude, "Don't tell me. I want to find out for myself" (at least they have the attitude until it is submerged in wealth of organized course where they are talked to, and more often talked at), the methods course would have to incorporate the principles of selective educational guidance.

The last required education course should be "intern" or "practice" teaching. Each student would be required to participate for one semester, three credit hours, in a situation where he or she would be teaching. This could include classroom teaching, nursery school supervision, adult evening courses in academic courses or in hobby or self-improvement classes, conference-type courses, specialized instruction on a group or individual basis; e.g. Americanization, tutoring, speech and hearing improvement. All students, including school of education students, would take the intern teaching course. The education majors would take an additional nine credit hours in intern teaching in their major areas of concentration.

Advantages

Several advantages would be produced from such a program. (A similar program could be developed for high school students and terminal students in community colleges.) The first major advantage would be that prospective parents would develop an understanding of children. They would learn the principles of the scientific laws of child growth, development, and education. They would be able to guide their children, as well as others with whom they would come into contact, both formally and informally. Parents would be able to take a wise course of assistance in developing the moral and intellectual growth of their children.

While such advantages as self-reliance; appreciation for ideas, art, science, books; self-awareness; independence; and curiosity would be, in general, inculcated in the children of such parents, perhaps the most significant result would be the development of critical thinking. Parents, as informal teachers, would be encouraged to teach primarily along the principles involved in the scientific method. Science is properly speaking the attitude of always drawing conclusions from data, and verifying these conclusions by means of observation and experiment. Perhaps a major constituent of the scientific attitude is that it produces a feeling of reluctance to rely upon authority.

Little learning takes place in the lecture situation, because the student must trust to the authority of a teacher and supreme rewards are given for mere memorization. Children together with their parents would learn from observation and experimentation and thus come to rely upon their individual reason.

A Study of Pupils' Interests, Grades 9, 10, 11, 12*

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THIS article, which deals with *play* and *recreation interests* and with *reading interests,* is the second installment of a report based on a cooperative project carried on between Northwestern University and the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The first installment, dealing with *TV, radio,* and *movie interests,* appeared in the September issue. The third and final installment, dealing with *vocational* and *educational interests,* will appear in the November issue.

Play and Recreation

We have already pointed out that the

TABLE XV
Seasonal Activities Preferred by Pupils in Grades 9 and 10
(90% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Summer		
Swimming	60.9	Swimming	82.2
Baseball	29.4	Tennis	13.0
Basketball	9.0	Baseball	7.9
Fishing	5.2	Horseback riding	6.3
Tennis	3.8	Bike riding	2.8
		Golf	2.8
	Spring		
Baseball	37.8	Baseball	21.1
Basketball	13.0	Tennis	16.3
Football	6.7	Roller Skating	11.5
Swimming	6.3	Bike riding	6.3
Track	5.9	Walking	5.8
Tennis	5.9		
	Winter		
Basketball	31.4	Ice Skating	61.0
Ice Skating	20.9	Basketball	14.8
Swimming	5.8	Roller Skating	6.8
Ice Hockey	4.0	Toboganning	6.3
Wrestling	3.6	Skiing	5.1
Bowling	3.6		
	Fall		
Football	50.0	Horseback Riding	10.6
Basketball	12.4	Roller Skating	10.2
Bowling	4.0	Tennis	6.1
Hunting	3.6	Basketball	5.1
Swimming	3.2	Bike riding	4.6
Baseball	3.2		
Track	3.2		

*Special credit is due Robert A. Sizemore, Paul Kinsella, Ann Coomer, Stanley Krippner, and Eva Bednash for their efforts in helping to collect and check the data used in this article.

mass media constitute the favored leisure pursuit of children and youth today. Among the mass media, TV consumes the largest amount of the pupils' time, and radio is next in this respect. High school pupils, too, enjoy TV but devote less time to it than do younger pupils. There are, of course, other activities to which they turn for recreation. We asked them to state their preferences for various seasonal activities. Tables XV and XVI present the data.

TABLE XVI
Seasonal Activities Preferred by Pupils in Grades 11 and 12
(90% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Summer		
Swimming	52.0	Swimming	78.1
Baseball	23.1	Tennis	13.0
Water Skiing	7.7	Water Skiing	8.8
Boating	6.8	Boating	5.0
Golfing	6.3	Picnic	4.2
	Spring		
Baseball	34.8	Tennis	24.7
Track	9.2	Baseball	13.4
Basketball	8.7	Roller Skating	12.9
Fishing	7.6	Walking	8.2
Swimming	4.3	Horseback riding	5.7
Football	4.3		
	Winter		
Basketball	37.2	Ice Skating	54.6
Ice Skating	21.9	Dancing	6.0
Skiing	7.6	Skiing	6.0
Hunting	5.6	Sledding	5.5
Track	5.1	Tobogganing	5.0
		Bowling	4.6
	Fall		
Football	51.6	Tennis	19.0
Basketball	13.0	Roller Skating	7.6
Hunting	8.7	Horseback Riding	7.1
		Dancing	6.0
		Hiking	5.4

One question sought to ascertain the pupils' favorite outdoor activities. The number of pupils who stated that they took part in outdoor sports was large. The favored activities of boys and girls are shown in Table XVII.

TABLE XVII
Outdoor Sports or Activities Preferred
(95.4% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Baseball	55.3	Swimming	45.1
Football	53.6	Baseball	40.3
Swimming	31.8	Tennis	33.2
Basketball	10.6	Ice Skating	22.9
Tennis	10.3	Football	19.4
		Basketball	13.4
	Grades 11 and 12		
Football	71.5	Swimming	42.1
Baseball	55.2	Tennis	35.3
Swimming	29.9	Baseball	32.3
Basketball	16.3	Ice Skating	31.9
Track	13.1	Football	17.0
		Skiing	9.4

We asked the pupils to name their favorite indoor games and activities. Table XVIII presents their responses. Basketball led the list for all groups except the girls in grades 11 and 12 who ranked *Ping Pong* first.

TABLE XVIII
Indoor Sports and Activities Preferred
(93.3% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Basketball	56.1	Basketball	47.2
Swimming	26.2	Ping Pong	29.2
Ping Pong	19.6	Volleyball	29.2
Track	12.3	Swimming	22.4
Bowling	12.0	Bowling	9.2
		Roller Skating	7.2
	Grades 11 and 12		
Basketball	72.2	Ping Pong	36.9
Swimming	24.1	Basketball	35.6
Ping Pong	11.1	Bowling	23.4
Bowling	10.2	Roller Skating	21.2
Pool	9.7	Volleyball	19.8

One question in the investigation related to building or making things. Table XIX gives the per cent of pupils who stated that they constructed things. A higher per cent of boys than girls reported making things at all levels. Table XX shows the items made most frequently.

TABLE XIX
Pupils Who Reported Making Things
(99% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Yes	59.4	Yes	35.7
No	40.6	No	64.3
	Grades 11 and 12		
Yes	63.0	Yes	38.1
No	37.0	No	61.9

TABLE XX
Objects Constructed by Pupils

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Models	40.1	Clothing	44.0
Table	7.3	Jewelry	6.0
Bookcase	6.8	Pottery	5.0
Shelves	6.2	Pot holders	4.0
Lamp	4.2	Paintings	3.0
	Grades 11 and 12		
Models	50.3	Clothing	80.0
Cabinets	8.4	Copper Enamel Ware	11.1
Table	7.7	Bakery Goods	6.7
Shelf	6.3	Sweaters	5.5
Bookcase	4.9	Christmas cards	4.4

Table XXI presents the results of an inquiry concerning pets. And Table XXII cites the kind of pets reported at the two levels. Both boys and girls favor dogs and birds. The lists were similar for boys and the girls.

TABLE XXI
Extent of Pet Ownership
(99% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Yes	57.5	Yes	62.9
No	42.5	No	37.1
	Grades 11 and 12		
Yes	52.4	Yes	62.8
No	47.6	No	37.2

TABLE XXII
Pets Owned by Pupils

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Dog	84.1	Dog	67.8
Bird	22.0	Bird	31.0
Cat	19.5	Cat	21.6
Fish	7.3	Fish	6.4
Turtle	2.4	Parakeet	5.3
	Grades 11 and 12		
Dog	63.9	Dog	63.0
Bird	31.1	Bird	31.2
Cat	13.9	Cat	22.1
Fish	10.6	Fish	10.4
Parakeet	2.4	Turtle	3.2
		Rabbits	3.2

Three questions pertained to music. Table XXIII presents the answers of the groups. And Table XXIV gives the musical instruments played most frequently at the two levels. The girls had taken music lessons more frequently than the boys. And a slightly larger per cent of girls were currently taking music.

TABLE XXIII
Extent of Musical Instruments Played

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Pupils Playing Musical Instruments (96% return)		
	Grades 9 and 10		
Yes	30.4	Yes	39.1
No	69.6	No	60.9
	Grades 11 and 12		
Yes	25.4	Yes	50.6
No	74.6	No	49.4
	Pupils Who Have Taken Music Lessons (94% return)		
	Grades 9 and 10		
Yes	58.1	Yes	67.4
No	41.9	No	32.6
	Grades 11 and 12		
Yes	50.0	Yes	68.6
No	50.0	No	31.4
	Pupils Who Are Taking Music Lessons Now (92.5% return)		
	Grades 9 and 10		
Yes	13.6	Yes	14.3
No	86.4	No	85.7
	Grades 11 and 12		
Yes	7.0	Yes	9.7
No	93.0	No	90.3

TABLE XXIV
Musical Instruments Played

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Piano	24.0	Piano	62.4
Trumpet	13.9	Flute	10.5
Clarinet	10.8	Violin	4.5
Drums	10.1	Ukulele	3.0
Saxaphone	8.5	Clarinet	3.0
		Accordion	3.0
		Organ	3.0
		Cello	2.2
		Guitar	2.2
	Grades 11 and 12		
Piano	22.4	Piano	80.3
Drums	19.0	Clarinet	9.0
Clarinet	17.2	Accordion	8.2
Trumpet	15.5	Organ	6.5
Guitar	10.3	Violin	4.9

Another item of inquiry involved home chores and duties. Table XXV presents the data on home responsibilities. And Table XXVI shows the particular duties and chores engaged in by the pupils in the two groups. It may be seen that the chores and responsibilities of the girls involved more frequently than the boys certain activities such as washing dishes.

TABLE XXV
Per Cent of Pupils with Home Chores or Duties
(99% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Yes	81.9	Yes	98.1
No	18.1	No	1.9
	Grades 11 and 12		
Yes	79.3	Yes	96.7
No	20.7	No	3.3

TABLE XXVI
Home Chores or Duties

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Take out garbage	34.7	Wash dishes	65.4
Wash dishes	30.6	Clean house	49.0
Clean room	24.2	Clean room	43.0
Shovel walks	17.5	Iron	17.5
Mow lawn	16.8	Make bed	15.2
	Grades 11 and 12		
Clean room	31.8	Wash dishes	60.9
Take out garbage	28.9	Clean room	46.1
Wash dishes	26.6	Clean house	46.1
Mow lawn	23.1	Iron	14.3
Clean house	17.9	Make bed	13.9
		Cook	10.4

Reading

The pupils were asked to indicate how much time they spent in reading "outside school." Table XXVII presents the averages for pupils in grades 9 through 12. It may be seen that the pupils spent on the average about one hour and one-third per day. The girls read more than the boys.

TABLE XXVII
Time Spent in Daily Reading Outside of School
(82% return)

Boys	Girls
Grades 9 and 10	
1.3 hours	1.4 hours
Grades 11 and 12	
1.3 hours	1.4 hours

TABLE XXVIII
Per Cent of Pupils Who Have Library Cards
(96% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
Grades 9 and 10			
Yes	71.0	Yes	79.8
No	29.0	No	20.2
Grades 11 and 12			
Yes	69.7	Yes	83.9
No	30.3	No	16.1

Table XXIX shows the percentages of pupils who said that TV, radio, and movies had influenced their reading. The pupils reported that movies and television programs had influenced their reading of books to a greater extent than did radio. Movies ranked first and radio third in influence among these pupils. Some of the movies may have been seen on TV.

TABLE XXIX
Influence of TV, Radio, and Movies upon Reading
(99% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
Grades 9 and 10			
TV		*TV*	
Yes	18.1	Yes	15.0
No	81.9	No	85.0
Radio		*Radio*	
Yes	1.5	Yes	2.1
No	98.5	No	97.9
Movies		*Movies*	
Yes	36.8	Yes	38.5
No	63.2	No	61.5
Grades 11 and 12			
TV		*TV*	
Yes	15.1	Yes	16.7
No	84.9	No	83.3
Radio		*Radio*	
Yes	2.7	Yes	2.1
No	97.3	No	97.9
Movies		*Movies*	
Yes	45.8	Yes	63.4
No	54.2	No	36.6

Table XXX contains a list of the pupils' preferred types of reading. The girls gave fiction highest rank as the kind of reading they liked best. The boys' first choice was newspaper and magazine articles. Second choice for the girls at both levels was the reading of articles in newspapers and magazines. Fiction was the second choice of the boys. Relatively small percentages of the pupils reported a liking for poetry, plays, or essays. At both levels the girls expressed a greater liking for poetry or plays than did the boys.

TABLE XXX
Kinds of Reading Liked
(98% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Articles in newspapers and magazines	32.0	Fiction	30.4
Fiction	31.3	Articles in newspapers and magazines	26.0
Biography	22.4	Biography	17.9
Plays	5.7	Plays	13.3
Essays	5.4	Poetry	7.0
Poetry	3.2	Essays	5.4
	Grades 11 and 12		
Articles in newspapers and magazines	30.9	Fiction	32.6
Fiction	30.7	Articles in newspapers and magazines	25.2
Biography	23.4	Biography	19.0
Essays	6.7	Plays	12.4
Plays	6.6	Poetry	6.2
Poetry	1.7	Essays	4.6

Sex differences were somewhat pronounced as shown in Table XXXI. Science fiction was among the preferences of the boys, but it did not appear among the girls' choices. Similarly, romance and career stories were chosen by the girls but not by the boys at these levels. The boys indicated a stronger preference for adventure stories. Girls appeared somewhat more interested in humorous stories. In general, boys at all levels expressed a preference for stories involving action and adventure, while girls at all levels generally expressed a preference for romance, mystery, and humor.

TABLE XXXI
Kinds of Stories Liked
(95% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Adventure	63.7	Romance	71.4
Mystery	55.4	Mystery	55.1
Science Fiction	44.9	Humor	49.3
Humor	39.3	Adventure	31.3
Westerns	19.1	Animal	10.9
	Grades 11 and 12		
Adventure	67.3	Romance	64.6
Mystery	53.3	Humor	52.5
Humor	49.4	Mystery	47.1
Science Fiction	33.1	Adventure	41.7
Westerns	16.3	Career	22.9

The favorite titles of the boys in the ninth and tenth grades were *The Yearling, Kon Tiki,* and *Around the World in 80 Days.* The favorite titles of the girls in the ninth and tenth grades were *Gone with the Wind, Little Women, Sue Barton,* and *Kon Tiki.*

The favorite titles of boys in the eleventh and twelfth grades were *Kon Tiki, Old Man and the Sea, Tale of Two Cities, Huckleberry Finn, Cry the Beloved Country, and 20,000 Leagues under the Sea.* The favored title of the girls in the eleventh and twelfth grades was *Gone with the Wind,* with lesser interest in *Tale of Two Cities* and *Jane Eyre.* The boys' interests were broader than the girls'.

TABLE XXXII
Best Books Read

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
The Yearling	3.8	Gone With the Wind	7.9
Kon Tiki	3.8	Little Women	5.6
Around the World in 80 Days	3.5	Sue Barton	5.0
Tom Sawyer	2.9	Kon Tiki	4.6
Hardy Boys	2.9	Jane Eyre	3.6
30 Seconds over Tokyo	2.4		
Robinson Crusoe	2.4		
Three Musketeers	2.4		
	Grades 11 and 12		
Kon Tiki	5.2	Gone With the Wind	18.1
Old Man and the Sea	3.0	Tale of Two Cities	6.8
Tale of Two Cities	3.0	Jane Eyre	6.0
Huckleberry Finn	3.0	The Robe	4.4
Cry the Beloved Country	3.0	Little Women	4.0
20,000 Leagues Under the Sea	3.0		
Gone with the Wind	2.6		
Tom Sawyer	2.6		
Mysterious Island	2.6		
The Yearling	2.6		

The boys and girls tended to select non-fiction books in similar categories although the rank order changed. Thus, the boys in grades 9 and 10 preferred in order, books about famous people, travel, and space travel, while the girls favored famous people, careers, and people from other lands. Table XXXIII shows the favored non-fiction reading of both sexes.

TABLE XXXIII
Books Other than Storybooks Liked
(91% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Famous People	39.8	Famous People	53.5
Travels	24.6	Careers	37.1
Space Travel	21.4	People of Other Lands	35.6
Careers	17.3	Travels	24.3
People of Other Lands	14.2	Space Travel	6.0
	Grades 11 and 12		
Famous People	47.0	Famous People	78.9
Space Travel	36.5	Careers	59.3
People of Other Lands	23.3	People of Other Lands	43.5
Careers	20.9	Travels	40.2
Travels	20.1	Space Travel	11.0

One of the major trends in the publishing of books has been the dissemination of paperback editions. The participants in this study were asked whether they read these editions. As shown in Table XXXIV, these students frequently reported reading paperbacks.

Slightly more girls than boys said that they read paperback editions. However, the difference was small.

TABLE XXXIV
Per cent of Pupils Who Read Paperbacks
(92% return)

Grades 9 and 10	Boys	Girls	Grades 11 and 12	Boys	Girls
Yes	31.7	35.8	Yes	36.5	36.6
No	68.3	64.2	No	63.5	63.4

Table XXXV gives the percentages of pupils who read series books. Table XXXVI gives the five best-liked series in the various grades. The *Landmark* series was the most widely read with *Teen-Age Tales* second.

TABLE XXXV
Pupils Who Read Series Books
(96.3% return)

Grades 9 and 10	Boys	Girls	Grades 11 and 12	Boys	Girls
Yes	45.8	47.8	Yes	37.2	30.0
No	54.2	52.2	No	62.8	70.0

TABLE XXXVI
Series Books Read by Pupils

Grades 9 and 10	Boys	Girls	Grades 11 and 12	Boys	Girls
Landmark	63.4%	34.1%	Landmark	81.9%	37.5%
Teen-Age Tales	19.0	28.3	Teen-Age Tales	5.3	.....
Hardy Boys	5.2	.....	First Books	2.1	.....
Nancy Drew	.....	12.3	Nancy Drew	.....	20.8
			Cherry Ames	.....	5.5

At all levels, the pupils consistently ranked the picture magazines *Life* and *Look* among their favorites. *The Saturday Evening Post*, news periodicals such as *Time* and *Newsweek*, and *Seventeen* also appeared frequently.

TABLE XXXVII
Magazines Liked Best
(97% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Life	44.4	Life	41.1
Saturday Evening Post	25.8	Seventeen	30.5
Look	21.9	Look	19.9
Time	12.2	Saturday Evening Post	19.9
Sports Illustrated	7.9	McCall's	9.9
		Ladies' Home Journal	9.6
		Reader's Digest	9.6
	Grades 11 and 12		
Life	57.9	Life	53.1
Saturday Evening Post	31.3	Seventeen	46.0
Look	27.0	Saturday Evening Post	26.3
Time	19.7	Look	23.8
Sports Illustrated	15.0	Reader's Digest	14.6

The newspapers read regularly by these pupils consisted of the local morning or evening publications. The parts of the newspaper generally preferred by boys and girls were sports, comics, front page, and news.

Table XXXVIII gives the favorite comic books of boys and girls in the two levels. *Superman* was clearly the favorite of the boys at both levels and *Donald Duck* ranked second.

Archie and *Little Lulu* were clearly the favorites of the girls at the lower level, and in reverse order were also the favorites at the higher level. The third favorite title of girls at both levels was *Donald Duck*, and the fourth favorite title was *Superman*. In general the boys tended to prefer thrillers such as *Superman*, whereas the girls tended to prefer humorous and romantic comic books.

TABLE XXXVIII
Favorite Comic Books of Pupils
(90% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Superman	23.6	Archie	19.1
Donald Duck	16.7	Little Lulu	16.9
Mad	12.8	Donald Duck	12.5
Batman	11.8	Superman	8.5
Bugs Bunny	8.8	Love Comics	8.5
		Katy Keene	7.7
	Grades 11 and 12		
Superman	12.8	Little Lulu	16.5
Donald Duck	12.8	Archie	14.7
Bugs Bunny	7.0	Donald Duck	12.5
Mad	6.6	Superman	10.7
Batman	5.8	Bugs Bunny	8.5
Mickey Mouse	4.5		

Table XXXIX shows the favorite comic strips at the two levels. It may readily be observed that *Dick Tracy* was popular with both boys and girls at both levels. *Nancy* was popular with both boys and girls in the ninth and tenth grades, whereas *Peanuts* was popular with boys in the eleventh and twelfth grades. Both boys and girls liked *Dennis the Menace*. Here again, as in other categories, the girls manifested greater interest in romance than the boys.

TABLE XXXIX
Favorite Comic Strips
(85% return)

Boys	Per Cent	Girls	Per Cent
	Grades 9 and 10		
Dick Tracy	25.0	Dick Tracy	22.5
Nancy	14.7	Nancy	21.7
Steve Roper	13.4	Dondi	16.0
Dennis the Menace	12.3	Dennis the Menace	16.0
Peanuts	11.7	Long Sam	13.3
		Peanuts	13.3
		Brenda Starr	12.6
	Grades 11 and 12		
Dick Tracy	29.1	Dick Tracy	29.2
Peanuts	17.9	Peanuts	23.7
Nancy	17.1	Dennis the Menace	17.8
Dennis the Menace	14.5	Nancy	16.9
Steve Roper	14.1	Mary Worth	16.9
		Brenda Starr	16.4

The participants were asked to rank seven activities in order of preference. Opportunity was given each pupil to suggest additional activities. Table XL reveals the results by rank order. The boys at each of the levels ranked watching TV as top choice. The girls at the lower level ranked watching TV as top choice, whereas the girls at the higher level ranked going to the movies as top choice. The boys at both levels ranked going to the movies as second choice and listening to the radio as third choice. The girls at both levels manifested a great interest in listening to the radio. In general the boys manifested a great interest in reading magazines, whereas the girls manifested a greater interest in reading stories in books rather than in reading magazines.

TABLE XL
Activity Preferences of Pupils (97% return)
(Rank Order)

Boys	Girls
Grades 9 and 10	
Watching TV	Watching TV
Going to the Movies	Listening to the Radio
Listening to the Radio	Going to the Movies
Reading Magazines	Reading Stories in Books
Reading Stories in Books	Reading Magazines
Reading the Newspaper	Reading the Newspaper
Reading Comics	Reading Comics
Grades 11 and 12	
Watching TV	Going to the Movies
Going to the Movies	Watching TV
Listening to the Radio	Listening to the Radio
Reading Magazines	Reading Stories in Books
Reading the Newspapers	Reading Magazines
Reading Stories in Books	Reading the Newspaper
Reading Comics	Reading Comics

What one knows is, in youth, of little moment; they know enough who know how to learn.

—Henry Adams, *The Education of Henry Adams*

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A Stranger Looks at Reading Instruction

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In a previous article[1] I described a visit to two classrooms, one of which exemplified the "individualized" method of teaching reading and the other the "basal" method of teaching reading. I had been led to believe that both methods had certain strengths and weaknesses, but I preferred to draw my own conclusions.

Individualized Reading Instruction

For example, I was repeatedly told that the "individualized" teaching of reading went hand in hand with the "look and say" or "whole word" method of teaching reading, and ignored the development of phonic skills. This I discovered to be quite untrue. I must have watched about ten teachers at work in different places who were using some form of individualized teaching, and in no case was there any cause for complaint that the teachers were not teaching phonic skills. Rather it was noticeable that all these teachers laid considerable stress on this aspect of the teaching.

In any system of teaching where the children spend a substantial amount of time in reading books of their own choice individually, it is difficult to conceive of any other approach being successful. This is not to say of course that the importance of building up an ever-increasing sight recognition vocabulary was not realized; every technique in current use was employed by some of these teachers.

On the whole, however, if any generalization may be permitted, such teachers claim that they have found more success in what is sometimes called "relationship phonics" rather than in the blending of letter sounds, and that method appears to me to be characteristic of their teaching.

Perhaps it is also necessary to say that those teachers whom I saw practicing "individualized" reading instruction and who would claim to be exponents of that method were not neglecting to use group instruction. Instead of maintaining permanent groups, however, they tended to form small impromptu groups to teach particular skills where these were seen to be needed, or for the purpose of forming teams for some reading game or competition.

The final misunderstanding that must be mentioned is that "individual-

1. "A Stranger Looks at Reading Instruction," *Education* (May, 1961), pp. 547-550.

ized" instruction is only suitable for use in exceptionally small classes. No doubt, like most forms of teaching, it would be more effective in small classes; nevertheless, the classes in which I did see such instruction were of average size. Since my return to England I have watched such instruction taking place most successfully in a class of forty-seven children.

Basal Reading Instruction

I also observed last month that one of the main criticisms of the "basal" teacher was that he followed too closely the instructions of his teacher's handbook with the result that his teaching was stereotyped and lacking in vitality.

It is true that a good deal of the teaching I saw was somewhat stereotyped, but this was certainly not due to an excessive use of the teacher's handbook. Indeed, had the handbook been used more, the teaching would have been considerably improved in many places, for some of the better handbooks include suggestions for a wide variety of activities for every lesson, and often deal in detail with the methods to be used in building up each new skill, or teaching each new difficult word. Yet in very few places did we see the handbook in use, with the results that some skills, which were the main points of the lessons being taught, were completely passed over by the teacher.

This is getting the worst of both worlds with a vengeance, for the main justification of the basal reader is the orderly presentation of reading skills which it provides. Of course the skilled teacher who has been through the teacher's handbook carefully, and has some insight into the author's intentions in the way he has drawn up his lessons, may well dispense with the handbook except occasionally.

The young and inexperienced teacher, on the other hand, should never begin a single reading lesson from his basal reader until he has read and mastered the suggestions of the author on that lesson—though even the inexperienced teacher may feel that he does not want to make use of the suggestions in the form in which they are offered.

It is only fair to add that some of the handbooks give very little practical assistance at the points where such advice is most needed.

The Class Library

One of the most welcome features of the reading scene is the growing number of attractive classroom libraries in the primary schools. American publishers are producing a growing variety of attractive books for children, many of which are admirably calculated to fire the imagination and stimulate the desire for knowledge of school-age children. Surprisingly often these books are of considerable literary and artistic merit.

The teacher who does not make use of such books is deliberately ignoring one of his most valuable teaching aids. Unfortunately, some school districts are unwilling to provide a grant to pay for such auxiliary books, though they will cheerfully meet the bill for some more spectacular piece of equipment.

The School Library

Even more impressive were those schools which had opened libraries of "trade books" for their pupils. Gone are the days when it was thought unneces-

sary to provide a library for the elementary school. Significantly in many places it is the parents themselves who have seen the need for such a collection of books, and through their parent-teacher association have raised the funds for the library and in some cases the helpers to staff it. In such a library it is possible to provide material of an interest and difficulty range which cannot be included in a mere class library.

When a bright second or third grader has mastered the technique of reading, he is often inspired by the new world of enjoyment to which he has secured entrance. He begins to read his way through adventure stories or other material of interest to him at the rate of three or four books a week. These books are often considerably ahead of his chronological age, and could not possibly be provided in the quantity required in any other way than by a library.

Yet any frustration of this "spurt" of reading activity is likely to do lasting damage to the whole attitude of the child to the things of the mind, whether the frustration is caused simply by the non-availability of the books, by a teacher without understanding trying to restrain the child to the pace of the rest of the class, or by the books in which the child is interested being declared to be "not suitable for a child of his age." The crippling neglect of active frustration by the teacher of this natural reading spurt is distressingly frequent.

Freedom for Whom?

Undoubtedly the most fundamental criticism which an outsider would make about the classroom scene in the average American elementary school would be true not only of the teaching of reading but of all other subjects. This is the surprising lack of professional autonomy which is given to the individual school and the teachers in it, all the more surprising since it seems to be quite contrary to the normal American philosophy of freedom.

The states and the school boards resent most fiercely any interference in their affairs or dictation of policy by the federal government, yet they themselves dictate in detail what their schools are to do, and are often reluctant to delegate any professional responsibility to their teachers. The basal reading series is likely to be prescribed by the board of education and to be in use in every school under the board, even in schools where the teachers do not like it.

Time after time, I came across schools which were using a series which their teachers disliked and felt to be inadequate for the purpose. Time after time, I was told that another series was, of course, better but that they were not allowed to use it. The only thing to be said in favor of this system is the economy to be derived from ordering books by the wagon load. On educational grounds it can only be condemned. If a board cannot trust its teachers in a matter like this, then the teachers are not fit to be in the classrooms.

This is only one, though a very important, symptom of the current tendency to regard the teacher less as a professional man than as a technician. The tools are put into his hands and he is told exactly how to use them by the specialists and supervisors who descend on him at frequent intervals. The teacher may be forgiven for thinking that the only way to a real professional status in which he will be able to use his initiative is to become a specialist.

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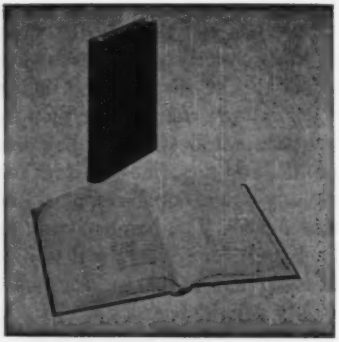

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The Task of the Specialist

These comments must not be construed as an attempt to denigrate the reading specialist. His services are still very much needed, especially in showing how work in comprehension can be closely integrated with word recognition, and how effective teaching depends on an accurate individual diagnosis of the strengths and weaknesses of each child. This ability to estimate individual reading level, which has often been regarded as the tool of the specialist, must at least in a simplified form be made available to every teacher of reading.

And perhaps I may be forgiven for repeating that those who educate teachers and are specialists in reading must continually refresh their memory about the actual classroom situation by frequent and extensive visits to schools throughout the country. Undoubtedly one of the things that they would learn from the classroom teachers is that the "either-or" attitude which the specialists tend to adopt to the "individualized" and "basal" reading methods is false.

The specialists must follow the teachers in their attempts to combine tremendous interest in books and reading, which I found overwhelmingly in the individualized classes, with the carefully graduated instruction which the basal readers provide for the beginning reader. Then they might be able to spend more time on the communication to the teacher of those diagnostic and remedial techniques of which the teacher so often stands in need, and in which America leads the world. For it is little consolation to lead the world in handling the problem of backward readers if one also leads the world in the magnitude of the problem.

Motivation in Teaching

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If one allows for possible exceptions, it is safe to say that in educational circles, the biggest challenge confronting teachers is to make students *want* to do what they ought to do.

This is motivation, which literally means to move or influence a person by an ideal.

In educational parlance, the reference is to the purposive effort stimulated by an effectual appeal to intellect, feelings, and will (1).

Teaching Objectives

Every teacher knows that her teaching objectives are not always the same as those of her students.

Often students might have a goal, a passing grade in the subject, or perhaps sufficient credits for graduation and a job, or to a better-paying job, which is frequently the situation teachers face when they attend technical or professional schools.

Many times an educator is confronted with indifference on the part of students towards a subject outside their professional interest.

This is not the educational abomination of desolation of the present day only, for Huxley in 1894 said that "perhaps the most valuable result of all education is the ability to make yourself do the thing you have to do, when it ought to be done, whether you like it or not; it is the first lesson that ought to be learned; and however early a man's training begins, it is probably the last lesson that he learns thoroughly" (2).

It seems almost an echo when Mark Van Doren, in the oft-quoted words of T. S. Eliot, said that "no one can become really educated without having pursued some study in which he took no interest—for it is part of education to learn to interest ourselves in subjects for which we have no aptitude" (3).

Vital Intellectual Content

These categorical assertions have the ring of truth in them and cannot be denied, but teachers who place the welfare of students before all else will hesitate to force the pursuit of a study without motivation.

Educators must maintain an emphasis on the cultivation of intellectual excellence (4), not only because a cultivated intellect is a good habit in itself, but because intellectual activity is the search for truth; hence students must be won over to the teacher's objectives by every artistry at the teacher's command.

In practice as well as in precept, teachers know that more learning results from pleasurable tasks willingly pursued, than from application to uncongenial lessons.

The truism, that learning is more effective when accompanied by a feeling of satisfaction than when accompanied by a sense of annoyance, is im-

portant for every teacher to keep in mind.

It is also wise to remember that a feeling of satisfaction is not the same as enjoyment or amusement. Since learning is an inescapable personal responsibility, the satisfaction should come from the feeling of pleasure at a job well done.

To this end, it is the teacher's obligation to convey and develop a lasting sense of purposeful effort by initiating enthusiasms, clearing paths, and inculcating a discipline and an interest in the subject.

Thus, by every legitimate means, the teacher endeavors to bring the students into intellectual communion with the essential values of the course so that the need for learning it is clear at all times.

The Law of Readiness

Motivation in the classroom should be gradual, unobtrusive, and cumulative. I sometimes think that teachers should copy, with modifications, the technique of the radio soap-opera.

In that daily feature, the audience is told what has happened yesterday, what is going to happen today, and what is planned or hoped-for tomorrow.

Every playwright knows that even a clumsy exposition is better than none at all, for in the opening lines of a play lie the hints of what is going to happen in the future when leading clues are dropped out of the past.

The same idea could be used in the classroom—not only because there is a good deal of drama in the classroom—but because the basic idea is sound—a review, a promise, and the here and now.

The review, whether it is a quick oral question and answer—parrying technique, or an occasional unannounced written quiz, aids emotional conditioning, or what is called by the educational psychologists the law of readiness.

Many Suitable Methods

It is unnecessary to discuss varied teaching methods, for what is valid in one case may be invalid in another (5).

What constitutes appropriate teaching techniques often will vary from course to course and among elements of study within a course in much the same way as a writer's style may vary from book to book and even from page to page.

Teaching techniques are important when, and only when, they motivate the learner. Since chronologically mature students are apt to be disturbed over a wide range of intellectual competence, teachers may have to be content with something short of perfection.

It is good for all of us to remember that perfection in any field is a difficult thing to come by. In the field of life itself, few of us approach the goal with any degree of imagination or resourcefulness.

Since the sole purpose of motivation is to stimulate learning, and since learning is for the conduct of life, "a man's reach" indeed "should exceed his grasp, or what's heaven for?"

Perhaps it is a good thing that there is no open sesame to motivation. There is no magic key. When teaching is an art more than a science the teacher realizes that all methods and techniques (in the Greek sense of art) are a means to an end.

As teaching personalities differ, from the studied unorthodox to the undeviating conformist, so techniques of motivation will differ; and here individuality is not to be confused with eccentricity (6).

With one teacher this individuality might be skillful questioning which wakes the lazy mind; with another it might be the Socratic method of having the student do the telling, since far too many teachers talk too much; with another it might be the brilliant and varied attack on each day's problem, always unpredictable, always stimulating, and always exciting.

At its very best, the highest motivation is to expect more of students than they feel they can accomplish; and the very expectation often brings about its rewarding results.

Invariably, there is some stimulating, indescribable personal factor on the part of the teacher which eventually makes the student *want to do* what the teacher knows he ought to do.

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BOOK REVIEWS

THE FIFTEEN DECISIVE BATTLES OF THE UNITED STATES. By O. K. Armstrong. N. Y. Longmans. 1961. $5.95.

Although the title of this volume indicates that its concern is the important battles of these United States, the author reaches back to colonial days and includes a number of decisive frays before the American Revolution. The first engagement described is that between General Oglethorpe and the Spaniards which decided that Georgia and the Carolinas would remain under British control rather than be taken over by the Florida Spaniards. Battles of two other colonial wars are described before the stories of the Revolutionary War and the War of 1812 came along. Vicksburg and Gettysburg are stressed as decisive battles of the Civil War and there is a very fine account of Admiral Dewey's naval victory in Manila Bay in 1898. The story of the American victories in World War I are described as the book concludes with accounts of the U. S. Naval victories over the Japanese in the Pacific in World War II and the eventual triumph over the Luftwaffe.

—W.P.S.

CHINESE MYTHS AND FANTASIES. By Cyril Birch. Illustrated by Kiddell-Monroe. N. Y. Henry Z. Walck, Inc. 1961. $3.75.

Dr. Birch, now Assistant Professor of Oriental Languages at the University of California, has collected a delightful batch of Chinese stories and has retold them with verve and color. Teachers will find these stories extremely useful when they introduce units in the geography, history, and culture of the Far East. There are folk tales and fairy tales and tales of ghosts and gods, rainmakers and magicians. All are highly entertaining and quite exotic.—W. P. S.

Coeducation Reconsidered

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WHEN we speak of coeducation on the following pages, we refer only and exclusively to coeducation in secondary schools; we do not speak of coeducation on the elementary level (age 5-10) or on the college level (age 18-22).

A separation of the sexes on the secondary school level occurs at present in certain classes in all public school systems (home economics and physical education for instance) or in certain schools (prep schools, military and other academies, girls' seminaries, finishing schools, and in nearly all European schools). Perhaps such separation is advisable for all classes in our secondary public schools. Factors favoring such separation are considered in the following paragraphs.

Different Development of the Sexes

The sexes develop differently during adolescence. Girls mature earlier in every respect and show a consistently higher curve of social, verbal, intellectual (even mathematical and scientific) achievement, as is easily proven, if by nothing else, by an inspection of European textbooks and curricula for girls and boys of equal age. The textbooks and curricula for girls' schools are considerably above the level of the boys' schools, especially on the lower levels of the secondary school age (10-15). The developmental curve of the girls flattens out during the latter years (15-18) and when the sexes reach college age they are pretty much on the same intellectual level.

If this natural fact could be taken into consideration, a grouping by sex would benefit both sexes. The girls would not be forced to keep pace with the more slowly developing boys, and the boys would not so easily give up competition with the faster developing girls, especially where verbal, artistic, and the non-mathematical and non-scientific disciplines are concerned.

One of the main reasons for the higher scholastic achievement of prep schools and seminaries lies in their accommodation to the natural developmental curve of whichever sex they educate. Similar results could be achieved in any public school system of even small or medium sizes without special effort or expense.

Abolition of Differential Grading

If the sexes were separated in secondary schools, the practice of differential grading could be abolished. In order to pass their coeducational classes at all, teachers must take refuge to all sorts of essentially dishonest stratagems, by downgrading the girls and upgrading the boys, by simply adopting different grading standards or procedures, or by weighing the first two misses in a test

with five points, the second two with four points and so on, or by making special allowances, particularly in the case of athletically gifted boys. The practice of differential grading is so widespread and comes so naturally to most teachers today, that its essentially dishonest nature and its deplorable discrimination against the intellectually gifted students, particularly the girls, is scarcely noted any more. A similar case could be made out for the practice of differential disciplining and rewarding.

Better Scholastic Achievement

With the increasing scarcity of college facilities, high intellectual achievement will become indispensable for college acceptance. It is not right to deny girls a full development of their intellectual powers by keeping them to the lower level of the more slowly maturing boys. It is not right to let boys compete with girls at an age where they are evidently handicapped and thus do not achieve as much as they would in a fairer competition.

Antidote for "Anti-intellectualism"

Our nation loses much intellectual and artistic capital because the girls are kept back or the boys become too discouraged to keep up with them. Boys will rather compete with one another than with the other sex. Hence the famous "anti-intellectualism" of the American male. The only place where the boys can successfully compete with the girls (and with the other boys) is in sports and shop. Hence also the disdain of the normal boy for achievements which he considers "sissy," i.e., characteristic of the other sex, playing the violin for instance, a love of poetry and good literature, precise and careful English, verbal fluency, art in practically any form, neatness, French, etc. Men thus accept a role of cultural inferiority which is only justified during adolescence, but is unfortunately carried over into later life. Jokes about men dragged by their wives to artistic or intellectual offerings against their will are understood only in America.

Ease of Racial Integration

Racial integration could proceed with a minimum of friction if the sexes were separated in secondary schools. What is after all (unspokenly) behind the resistance of parents against racial integration if not the fear of sexual contact between the races?

De-emphasis of "Sex"

Coeducation has not abolished sexual precocity, anxiety, or over-emphasis, but has augmented it. Wherever coeducational practices on a large scale exist, in Sweden for instance, more premature pregnancies and abortions, more high-school marriages, more erotic pre-

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occupation and sexual precocity exist than would otherwise be the case. The unblemished record of prep schools and seminaries in this regard speaks for itself. We do children no favor in stimulating their erotic interests too early. Boys and girls, but especially boys, are driven to sexual experimentation at much too early an age. We may not like to look in this direction, but any conversation with a social worker or an honest and perceptive teacher will show us an ugly picture. The lurid accounts of "sex clubs," revolting love practices of adolescents in the "blackboard jungle," of rape and virtual prostitution, are unfortunately not without foundation in fact.

Less Distraction

Much unnecessary distraction and expense could be avoided by separating the sexes. Virtually compulsory dances for the lower grades (and the higher grades, too) could be eliminated. Worries (for students and parents alike) about dating, dressing, spending, going steady, being accepted by the other sex (being "popular"), as well as certain eccentricities of dress and behavior, jealousies, and tensions could be reduced or eliminated. Whether classroom discipline would improve is a moot point. One set of difficulties would probably be replaced by another. In this respect too much depends upon the personality of the teacher.

Consideration of Natural Instincts

If left alone, the sexes separate naturally during adolescence. Boys would much rather play baseball than take dancing lessons. The majority of the girls would not take such a precocious interest in boys if they did not feel compelled to do so in competition with and led by the bad example of those few unfortunate girls who have matured too early. Normally, girls in their early teens rather admire boys older than they. These boys, of course, begin to notice their own contemporaries and have no interest in younger girls, so a natural balance is provided. Why should we bring forcibly together what nature and sound instincts would rather have apart? We actually cheat young people of that richer love which would be theirs if they came together at a more mature age.

More Efficient Instruction

A number of textbooks could be rewritten so as to take care not only of the different vocational needs, but also of the natural and different tendencies of boys and girls. Part of the dislike many boys have for poetry and good literature stems from the fact that their readers and literary programs are not for boys.

Boys and girls are after all different and perhaps at no time more so than during the age of sexual maturing. Art and music instruction for boys ought to be completely different from that for girls, but even disciplines like biology, hygiene, geography, history, and languages would gain in intrinsic and motivational interest and therefore student acceptance if they were presented selectively and with different emphases to either sex. It is curious that in all the talk (and twaddle) about "child-centered" teaching the most fundamental determinant of every child, its sex, is never taken into account.

Economy

In the larger school systems a separation of the sexes might actually result in considerable savings. Toilets, shower and dressing room facilities, home economics and shop rooms, special gym equipment, tools, instruments, etc. would not have to be duplicated. Less chaperoning, policing, hall supervision, more efficient truancy prevention would be possible.

A high school principal in Allentown, Pennsylvania, forbids "going steady." In some schools in New York City police must actually protect girls and female teachers; girls in some big city schools are said to carry knives for their protection; elaborate teen-age codes are discussed. Why all this bother and expense, when most of it can be so easily avoided by grouping the sexes into different schools in the larger school systems and into separate classes in the smaller ones?

No Prevention of Homosexuality

Coeducation does not prevent homosexuality; if anything, it may actually provoke it—for instance, in a case where an artistically inclined, aesthetically sensitive boy is early classified as "sissy" by his classmates, because he shows an atypical superiority which at his age is more often observed in girls. Sweden, with coeducation and compulsory sex instruction, has recently been forced to legalize homsexuality. (England, which does not have a coeducational system, has a pretty severe problem in this regard, too, but there it is due, especially in the upper classes, to a *total* separation of the sexes, inside of school and out of it, and to an actual prevention of nearly all contact among the sexes between the ages from 5 to 18).

Discrimination against Less Privileged

If all public school systems gave parents and students a choice between coeducational and separate secondary schools, the existence of sex-separated private schools might be condoned. As this is not the case, it is undemocratic and morally wrong to allow only the wealthy to have their children educated with all the advantages of a sex-separated education, with the efficiency it entails for teachers and students and the freedom from worry for the parents, while all the children in our public school system must be subject to a coeducation, which neither they nor their teachers or parents do necessarily prefer, and which is costly, inefficient, and socially troublesome.

Loss of Parental Interest

Since many parents of the economically, and therefore also educationally, privileged classes tend to send their children to private sex-separated schools, they lose their interest in public high schools, especially in the smaller school systems. If all parents were forced to send their children to public high schools, the caliber of our public high schools, particularly in regard to the college preparatory courses, would be higher. The private schools drain a considerable amount of student talent and parental interest and support from our public schools, foremost from our high schools.

Where the sex-separated public high schools exist, as in France and Germany,

private schools are few and without importance and the particular snobism engendered by attendance at a private school does not exist; in fact attendance at a private school may bespeak an intellectual or emotional inability to attend a public school. The situation is different in England for historical reasons.

The Happiness of Children

Some children (homely girls, unpopular boys) are definitely unhappy in our coeducational schools and, though they may be equally unhappy in sex-separated private schools, they are not so because they miss the company of the other sex. In fact, we think children are on the whole happier in sex-separated schools. On the other hand, children who were happy and popular in coeducational schools may become quite unhappy as young adults when circumstances force them to do without the other sex, in the Army for instance, in all-male or all-female colleges, in nurses' homes or in jobs where they have little or no contact with the other sex.

Conclusion

Compulsory separation by sex may be as wrong as compulsory coeducation. All we advocate at this point is a resumption of the debate. We have now enough experience with coeducation to arrive at some valid conclusions. In the light of present American experience it does not appear as if coeducation is necessarily the most efficient or even the most economical form of secondary school education.

BOOK REVIEWS

CHAPTERS IN WESTERN CIVILIZATION. Volume I. Edited by the Contemporary Civilization Staff of Columbia College, Columbia University. N. Y. Columbia University Press. 1961. $6.00.

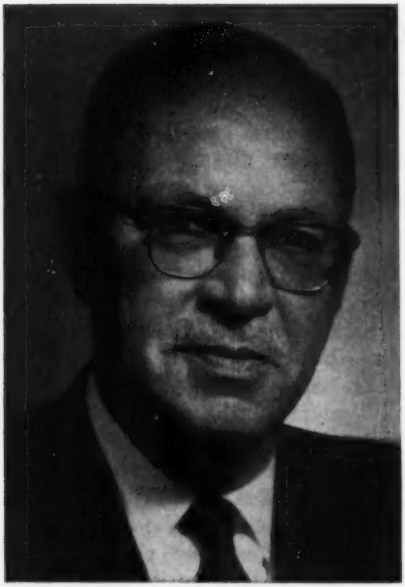
This is a third edition of the first volume of readings designed to accompany the well-known "Contemporary Civilization" course at Columbia College. For years this was a required course for all liberal arts men at Columbia, but recently it has become an elective. The course, itself, and the readings comprise a broad and deep approach to the study of man in his world. The present volume, with new and revised materials, covers such topics as medieval thought and social ideas, Renaissance humanism and politics, early capitalism, European expansion, the Reformation, the rise of the absolute state, the English Revolution of the seventeenth century and the Enlightenment. The book is a magnificent collection of apt and pertinent material for any course anywhere dealing with this period.—W. P. S.

THE HARVARD BRIEF DICTIONARY OF MUSIC. By Willi Apel and Ralph T. Daniel. Cambridge. Harvard University Press. 1960. $3.95.

This is the junior companion to the famous *Harvard Dictionary of Music*. The book provides a wide range of definitions, descriptions, and identifications as well as discussions on such general subjects as Symphony, Concerto, and Song. The volume has been prepared largely for the amateur, whether a high school student or an adult with a serious interest in music. There are brief explanations of individual works, operas, and symphonies. A valuable addition to the library for pupils studying music.—W. P. S.

Leaders in Education XXXVII

WILLIAM A. BROWNELL



Is it possible to catch in a few words the essence of a complex human being? In the case of William Arthur Brownell, a partial answer is found in the phrase "a Renaissance Man." Even in these days of the explosive growth of factual information, he combines in his person a range of knowledge, a love of life and people, and a virtuosity in educational affairs that make the description apt.

William Brownell was graduated from Smethport, Pennsylvania, High School and Allegheny College. He did graduate work at the University of Illinois and the University of Chicago.

He has taught not only at his own high school but also at such universities as Illinois, Michigan, Cornell, Northwestern, Duke, and at George Peabody College for Teachers. For the past ten years he has been Dean of the School of Education at the University of California, Berkeley.

William Brownell's most productive research was done at Duke University, where he and some of his students produced monographs and critical and research papers that are unparalleled in their attack on arithmetic instruction and the mental processes associated with computation and problem-solving. His textbooks also played a major role in transforming the teaching of arithmetic from routine drill to procedures based on "the meaning theory."

Dr. Brownell has held office in many professional organizations. He has been president of the American Education Research Association and of the Division of Educational Psychology of the American Psychological Association. For twelve years he was Director of the National Society for the Study of Education. Currently he is Chairman of the newly established Joint Commission for the Improvement of Teacher Education in California.

Such a listing reveals little of the warmth, humor, and humanity of a Renaissance Man. It only hints at the many facets of his personality.

DAVID H. RUSSELL
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WHAT SCHOOLS ARE DOING

Homework

GUY WAGNER
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A SIXTH grade teacher recently received this note from a parent, "Please give Bobby some homework 'cause our television set is busted." Although this mother apparently thought of homework as something merely to occupy her child's spare time, a great majority of parents certainly take the matter more seriously. And professional educators recognize homework as one of the major perennial problems facing our schools.

For decades many questions connected with homework have been posed by both teachers and parents. Some of the more persistent questions are:

1. Is homework desirable?
2. At what grade level should homework assignments begin?
3. What should be the nature of homework?
4. How can high school teachers avoid the "piling up" of homework on certain days?
5. Should weekend home study be expected?
6. How can we make the purpose of assigned homework crystal clear?

Questions also arise in connection with the parents' part in homework. Some of the important ones are:

1. Should parents give special help or is this likely to be in conflict with school-taught techniques?
2. In what ways can parents best encourage pupils to study at home?
3. Do you have a regular time and place for home study with adequate physical facilities and library materials?
4. Should you keep in touch with teachers regarding your child's homework? If so, how can this best be done?

Traditionally, homework was thought of as day-by-day assignments normally issued to the class as a whole. It also included work assigned to individual pupils either to "make-up" for absences or to help them "catch-up" with the rest of the class. Today's interpretation, however, is a much broader and more liberal one. Now, homework is conceived as highly individualized, with pupils engaged in a wide variety of study activities, project development, interviews and the like—all of which are likely to emerge from and complement their current school studies.

A good case can probably be made from homework if it is the right kind. As one authority put it, "Homework is all right if it is really right for the individual child."

Unfortunately, homework can be harmful when the assignments are so difficult and/or long that they discourage the child and lead to parental mis-

understanding and irritation; when, at the high school level, assignments from different teachers pile up on certain days; when home lighting and study conditions are poor; and when parents are called upon to serve as assistants.

On the positive side, however, parents can learn a great deal about the school program through the kind of homework their children are doing. Furthermore, when homework is sensed by pupils as a natural responsibility and something really important to be done they are likely to approach it with a reasonable degree of enthusiasm. Following are several guidelines that may serve to give helpful direction to a school's homework program:

I. In schools where a homework policy has been prepared in writing by parents and teachers working together, there is a strong chance that the policy will be a sensible one.

II. The most desirable type of homework is that which has been triggered by intriguing school experiences, thus creating pupil desire to follow-up the experience out of school.

III. Most adults whose work deals with a variety of mental tasks limit their working day so that originality, efficiency, and cogency remain at a reasonably high level. If pupils are to be stimulated to fruitful accomplishment during the school day it seem reasonable that they should not be burdened with excessive homework of a routine nature. This is particularly true in the case of the younger children.

IV. When homework is planned it should be tailored to fit the individual. This principle relates both to the type of activity and the amount of time required for its accomplishment.

V. The fear of failure is a poor motivation for home study. Furthermore, teachers should help the pupil to sense the cause of difficulty and to recognize that extra work will make it possible for him to be more successful.

VI. Whenever manifestations of good education overflow the classroom, spreading out into the activities of the home, we can be assured that this type of homework is good for the child, good for the parents, and good for the school.

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Many school systems have prepared explanatory "Homework" pamphlets and/or policy statements. These include the school systems of Denver, Colorado; Rochester, New York; Ridgewood, New Jersey; and Cincinnati, Ohio.

VIEWPOINTS

What Is Success and How Should We Report To Parents?

EARL H. HANSON
Superintendent of Schools, Rock Island, Illinois

In this country success in school is important and wanted by parents and teachers for their children; and failure is just as important and is as much deplored as success is desired.

Many people do not understand that there are two kinds of success—beating somebody, and becoming as strong, as good, as productive as each child was meant to become when he was born. The first is "success in competition," and everybody understands that. The second is "fulfillment of self," and, while that is really the cornerstone of the American ideal and also is intinctively yearned for by every normal living being, still it is not as much on top of the parents' minds and understanding as is "competitive success."

These two kinds of success are not necessarily mutually exclusive, but often in practice they become so. And they are often developed that way. Deliberate development of them to be opposites is not in the best interest of a society, particularly our Western-American civilization.

Confusion about the definitions of success leads to confusion in building and interpreting report cards. If complete attention is focused on the first, competitive success, then there can be no success for a pupil unless some other pupils fail. Remember, that to be a winner and have it mean anything, there must be a loser, too. If complete attention is focused on the second, the consequences for the individual over the long haul are probably good; but there may be shock—often crippling—when the cold winds of getting along in a competitive world blow on an untoughened and immature personality. The educational program should be attentive to both kinds of success.

Of course, no report card can do the job alone—it must be accompanied by long extended and intimate contact between teacher and parent, both of whom clearly understand the obligation to develop in each child both kinds of success. The best contacts are probably informal and should be frequent. Some parents are aggressive enough to get regular attention, and some teachers are gracious enough to seek after parents in many friendly and casual ways. However, I'm afraid that the contacts must be institutionalized or with most parents they just won't happen. Consequently, routine scheduled parent-teacher conferences should occur in every school, especially every elementary school. There should be at least two of them, one in the fall after teacher and children have become acquainted, and one in the spring when what the child is doing can be discussed.

BOOK REVIEWS

WILLIAM P. SEARS, Jr., Book Review Editor
New York University School of Education
Washington Square, New York City

THE MAKING OF A MODERN EDUCATOR. By William Van Til. Indianapolis. Bobbs-Merrill. 1961. $1.95 (paper)

William Van Til is a prominent and successful educator. Only recently, his picture appeared on the cover of *Education* and he joined that hall of fame of great educators so honored. Van Til is a man of parts and a broad and widely cultured individual. In this book, Dr. Van Til has gathered together a number of essays that represent milestones in the development of a successful and very useful career. The book is, in a sense, autobiographical in that it presents the growth of a professional man in the field of education.—W. P. S.

CURRICULUM PLANNING FOR THE GIFTED. Louis A. Fliegler, Editor. Englewood Cliffs, N. J. Prentice-Hall. 1961. $6.75.

Curriculum Planning for the Gifted is a text designed to facilitate the knowledge of skills and content and thereby enrich the life of the gifted child. It answers such questions as what to teach the gifted child, how to cope with his intellectual, physical, emotional and social needs, and how to meet the challenge in providing for individual differences. The contributors to the volume are specialists in their respective fields and top-flight educators. Areas discussed include social studies, science, mathematics, reading, creative writing, foreign languages, music, art, and dramatics. Although the approach is intended to broaden in scope and to stress subject matter and skills, throughout the book there is recognition of the importance of the understandings and attitudes which are essential to a comprehensive view of education.—W. P. S.

THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE SCHOOL. By Lawrence A. Cremin. N. Y. Alfred A. Knopf. 1961. $5.50.

Lawrence A. Cremin is Professor of Education and Chairman of the Department of Social and Philosophical Foundations of Education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and he is eminently prepared to speak with authority on the subject of this valuable book. The volume is a history of the progressive movement in American education. Dr. Cremin relates Progressivism in education to Progressivism in American political and social thought. Consequently, he begins his volume at the time of the protest and reform movements of post-Civil War days. He concentrates, however, on the progressive education movement in its heyday in the 1920's and 1930's. He notes a decline and, in fact, a collapse in the years following the Second World War. When the movement is surveyed with an objective eye, it is readily understandable why a hue and cry was raised by those who were wedded to traditional ways. Every new movement meets such objection and charges and countercharges indicate much heat and little light. That the progressive movement has had a tremendous impact on our ways in education cannot be denied. We are all the better for this movement and much that is being done effectively in our schools today can be traced to the progressive movement. In the course of time excesses disappear and lasting values emerge. *The Transformation of the School* traces the educational history of the past one hundred years as part of the social and intellectual history of our country. Some of the more important figures in this movement include Horace Mann, William T.

Harris, G. Stanley Hall, William James, E. L. Thorndike, John Dewey, Caroline Pratt, Margaret Naumberg, W. H. Kilpatrick, Boyd Bode, and George S. Counts. These, and other prominent figures, receive adequate treatment in Dr. Cremin's pages. The book is a most important one and should be required reading for all who profess and call themselves educators.—W. P. S.

THE VICTORIANS. By Sir Charles Petrie. N. Y. Longmans. 1961. $6.75.

Sir Charles Petrie has written a most readable and yet very scholarly book in this appraisal of the Victorians. The volume is based on excellent source materials and the author has included numerous episodes and anecdotes to complete his splendid picture of the Victorian way of life. Sir Charles pictures an era, not yet too far in the past, describes in delightful detail the routines of daily living during the long and eventful reign of Victoria.—W. P. S.

THE U. S. A. ANSWERS. Edited by Kenneth E. Beer. N. Y. U. S. and World Publications. 1961. $2.50.

The material for this book is based on research work compiled by more than fifty government and independent fact-finding agencies. Here are answers to the questions most frequently asked by people throughout the world about the United States. Areas covered include education and culture, government and the economy, science and technology, family life and work. The volume will serve a useful purpose in secondary school and civics courses.—W. P. S.

THE UNEXPECTED MESSIAH. By Elizabeth Pool. N. Y. Ives Washburn. 1961. $5.00.

This dramatic story, addressed to readers of all ages, is the result of decades of study on the part of the author as she sought to understand the great drama centering on the life of Jesus. Beginning with Moses and the Hebraic traditions, the story continues with the life and mission of Jesus, and concludes with the ministry of Paul and the early days of the Christian Church in Rome.—W. P. S.

STATEMENT REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF AUGUST 24, 1912, AS AMENDED BY THE ACTS OF MARCH 3, 1933, JULY 2, 1946 AND JUNE 11, 1960 (74 STAT. 208) SHOWING THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, AND CIRCULATION OF EDUCATION published Monthly except June, July, and August at Indianapolis, Indiana for October 1, 1961.

1. The names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business managers are:

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Sallie Kemp Bohlen, R. R. 2, Zionsville, Indiana; Mrs. Alice L. Bonewits, 127 Waldron St., W. Lafayette, Indiana; Butler University, Suite 1604, 108 E. Washington St., Indianapolis 4, Indiana; Mrs. Anne M. Burge, 5673 N. Illinois St., Indianapolis 8, Indiana; D. Lawrance Chambers, Merchants National Bank & Trust Co., c/o Trust Dept., 117 E. Wash. St., Indianapolis 11, Indiana; Esther Marguerite Elvin Cunning, Trustee under the will of Wm. H. Elvin, deceased, Box 295, Maysville, Kentucky; Virginia M. DePury, 1801 16th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Chester Hole, 525 Richmond St., Kendallville, Indiana; Elmer D. Johns, Zionsville, Indiana; Robert J. Kryter, 5126 W. 16th St., Indianapolis 24, Indiana; Mrs. Ada Lemmon, 127 Waldron St., W. Lafayette, Indiana; Nelle S. Mayo, 1620 Broadway, Indianapolis, Indiana; Leon W. Money, 1156 Dawson St., Indianapolis, Indiana; Robert L. Moorhead, R. R. 10 Box 204, Indianapolis 7, Indiana; Nom & Company, Trust Dept., American Fletcher National Bank & Trust Co., Indianapolis 9, Indiana; Miss Lesley Payne, 1321 N. Meridian St., Indianapolis, Indiana; Katherine O. Reeve, 4626 Washington Blvd., Indianapolis 5, Indiana; Elmer S. Stewart and Margaret A. Stewart, as joint tenants with right of survivorship, and not as tenants in common, 1206 N. Hawthorne Lane, Indianapolis, Indiana; Charles H. Tacoma, 1046 S. Randolph St., Indianapolis, Indiana; Elizabeth Heffernan Todd, 1310 Golden Hill Dr., Indianapolis, Indiana; Herbert Todd, 413 Lemcke Bldg., Indianapolis, Indiana.

4. Paragraphs 2 and 3 include, in cases where the stockholder or security holder appears upon the books of the company as trustee or in any other fiduciary relation, the name of the person or corporation for whom such trustee is acting; also the statements in the two paragraphs show the affiant's full knowledge and belief as to the circumstances and conditions under which stockholders and security holders who do not appear upon the books of the company as trustees, hold stock and securities in a capacity other than that of a bona fide owner.

5. The average number of copies of each issue of this publication sold or distributed, through the mails or otherwise, to paid subscribers during the 12 months preceding the date shown above was: (This information is required by the act of June 11, 1960 to be included in all statements regardless of frequency of issue.) 3,731.

(Signed) MAL PARKS, Jr., Bus. Mgr.
Sworn to and subscribed before me
this 28th day of September, 1961
(Seal) Marian F. Newman, Notary Public
(My commission expires March 19, 1963)

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